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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 4, 1901.

The Week.

Commissioner Evans has for once departed from his custom of ignoring the attacks made upon his administration of the Pension Office. He has made a statement which is as nearly crushing as possible, to all who have criticised him, and especially to Gen. Sickles, whose recent attack has been widely published. As to the latter, Mr. Evans produces a letter written by Gen. Sickles two years ago, declaring his (Evans's) administration "worthy of the highest commendation, and above all from the veteran soldiers." A little later, Gen. Sickles wrote an earnest letter to the President expressing the utmost confidence in the Commissioner, and "the same measure of contempt for your [his] critics." Now, unless Gen. Sickles can show that there has been a change in Mr. Evans's methods and spirit since those letters were written, he (Sickles) may be considered silenced. It appears, however, that one member of the Republican National Committee (Mr. Scott of West Virginia) did write a letter to Sickles during the last Presidential campaign, which the latter construed as a promise that Evans should be removed from office at the beginning of Mr. McKinley's second term, in consideration of the votes and influence of the insatiable pension-hunters. This bargain seems to be now fully established so far as Sickles and Scott are concerned, but of course it did not commit the President in any way. Nobody pretends that he knew anything about it at any time before the election. Now that it has been brought to his knowledge and to that of the whole people, he will undoubtedly sustain Commissioner Evans more strongly than ever, though it must be said that he has at no time been lacking in firmness in that particular. We look upon Mr. Evans as now secure in his place so long as Mr. McKinley remains in his.

Addicks, the true and the bold, has given us another glimpse of the moral heights which he occupies. He has done it by means of a public rebuke of President McKinley. In control of Delaware Republicanism as Addicks is, through the prowess of that good right arm of his with which he draws checks, he has "named" a Collector of the Port at Wilmington, but Mr. McKinley weakly shrinks from the merely clerical function of endorsing Addicks's selection. The reason is, says Addicks, as much in sorrow as in anger, "he is afraid of the newspapers." This is a form of

cowardice unknown to the new breed of political buccaneers. Mayor Ashbridge of Philadelphia is far superior to it. Croker scorns such rabbit-like timidity. Addicks does not know what this fear means. Afraid of having your evil deeds made public? Dreading an exposure by a newspaper that does not own a single delegate or control a solitary vote in the Legislature? This is too good. The boss who has his machine well in hand, the politico-commercial promoter who has his street-railway "goods" already delivered, the man who has made his peace with Hanna in his attempts to burglarize his way into the Senate—why should they be anything but bold as lions in the face of purely moral perils? If some one were threatening to hang them to the nearest lamp-post, that would be different; but a mere organ of public opinion, a simple echo of what everybody is saying—namely, that hanging would be too good for them—why, Ashbridge and Addicks snap their fingers at such a contemptible opponent as loftily as Dick Croker himself.

The *Times* publishes an interview with President Schurman, in which he gives a definite and clear-cut expression of his views as to the future of the Philippines. In the first place, he is opposed to their admission to the Union at any time. He thinks that the American Union should be restricted to the American continent. He thinks, moreover, that the Filipinos are not capable of self-government. Then he adds:

"Personally, I favor a continuation of American sovereignty for, say, two generations, and then allowing the people themselves to decide whether they wish to continue under our sovereignty or to maintain an independent government. We shall treat them fairly, develop their industries and resources, and I should not be surprised to have them express a desire to remain with us. In the interim I favor a government much like that now existing in Porto Rico—an American Governor, perhaps, with a legislative Council a portion of whose members shall be chosen by the people and the remainder appointed by the President."

This plan, if carried out, would fix the destiny, not only of the Philippines but of the United States, for two generations, presumably sixty years. It would make of the former a subject race, and of the latter a colonial empire, for so long a period that nobody of middle age would see the end of it. The conditions under which the two countries will exist will have an influence upon both far beyond the precepts of the most powerful educator of the present or of any other day. It may make us a grasping colonial empire. It may change the Filipinos from a brave to a cringing people. In fact, we do not know what may happen, except that President Schurman and his contemporaries now in middle-life will

not see the end of the experiment. And how does Mr. Schurman know that "we shall treat them fairly"? Are we likely to do better for them than we do for ourselves? Are we likely to give to Luzon a better government than Pennsylvania has at this present moment? Can we guarantee to Manila fairer treatment than Philadelphia receives at the hands of Mayor Ashbridge and his pals?

The outrages inflicted on the people of Philadelphia by their rulers have at last proved too much for the patience of that long-suffering community. At a very large meeting on Thursday evening resolutions denouncing the corrupt ring in the severest manner were adopted, and the present District Attorney, who is out of favor with the machine because he refuses to obey its orders, was nominated as an independent candidate. So great was the interest taken in this meeting that, in spite of the heat, nearly 5,000 people crowded into a hall that could seat only 3,000, and 5,000 more are supposed to have stood outside. These numbers are more significant than the speeches and resolutions. The political machine in Pennsylvania has prospered on denunciation, and thriven even on criminal charges and indictments. The only menace to its success is votes, and so long as the mass of the people contentedly vote for whomsoever the machine pleases to nominate, the protests and outcries of reformers are laughed at. As "T. B. S.," a citizen of Philadelphia, pointed out in a letter to the *Evening Post*, the people of that city are probably rather above the average in private morality, but their "political density" is extreme. When men will say, as a prominent business man did say, that they would vote for the devil if nominated by the Republicans, rather than for the angel Gabriel if nominated by the Democrats, they are likely to have rulers suitable to their servility.

Monday was the time for the change by which the important position of counsel of the Treasury Department before the Board of General Appraisers was transferred from an able and experienced incumbent, who had served six years with great credit, to a new man, who had no other claims than that he wanted the job. Senator Hoar's support of his colleague Lodge, in the latter's successful attempt to secure this position for a protégé, was a disagreeable surprise to the country. Mr. Lodge had already shown that there was no sincerity in his professions of devotion to civil-service reform, and he had an obvious motive for acting out his character in this case, because he wanted the

\$3,500 place in New York for his former private secretary in Boston. Mr. Hoar, however, did not appear to have any reason for demanding the removal of a faithful and experienced official, while he has never become known as a spoilsman. But it appears that Mr. Hoar was as deep in the mud as Mr. Lodge in the mire. The senior Senator wanted for a clerk of his committee the place in the Federal service at Boston which has been held by the junior Senator's ex-secretary who sought the New York appraisership, and when Mr. Lodge "landed" his man here, Mr. Hoar "landed" his in the Boston office. In short, dishonors are easy between them.

Ex-Secretary Herbert, in his address before the Alabama Bar Association on Friday, made a frank and crushing reply to the Republicans who cry out about negro disfranchisement in the South. The Ohio Republican platform adopted the other day, for example, worked up a high degree of moral indignation over the crime of depriving the negro of his right of suffrage. Why do you complain? asks Mr. Herbert. The South always contended that the Declaration of Independence does not apply to inferior races, and the Republican policy of to-day completely accepts that view. Why, then, all this heat about the Constitutional Convention of the South going to work to eliminate the negro vote? They are but doing, said the ex-Secretary, "precisely what the country is doing in its new island possessions—asserting the right of the superior race to govern savage tribes and mixed races." Really, we do not see that there is any answer to this except to call Mr. Herbert an ex-rebel. But we suppose that he would simply go on asserting that the Southerners were always the true Expansionists and Imperialists, and would contend that the North, having now gone over to their view, ought at least to leave off abusing them.

The question of lynching is troubling the Alabama Constitutional Convention, the members of which are suggesting various remedies for this particular form of lawlessness. The whole debate is another indication of the present tendency to embody in State Constitutions numerous laws and regulations which are in reality proper subjects for legislative enactment. It is hard to see how a Constitutional provision can accomplish more than an ordinary law in putting an end to lynching. The difficulty South and North—for lynching is not confined to any one section of the country—is not so much lack of proper laws as lack of proper public sentiment. If a mob will defy the Legislature, it will defy a Constitutional Convention. Doubtless the discussion of the subject now going on

in Alabama will help create a wholesome public sentiment, and is in that respect of value. Otherwise it would seem that the delegates had better spend their time and energy in other ways. A step for which the Alabama Convention deserves credit is the refusal to consider the plan of dividing the school fund between the whites and the negroes in the proportion in which each race contributes to it. This proposal has had the support, not only of the more prejudiced and noisy advocates of white domination, but even of men reputed to be temperate and judicial. The Convention is, therefore, to be congratulated on having resisted a certain amount of popular clamor, and on having responded to the eloquent appeals of Booker T. Washington and others, who feel that the welfare of whites and blacks would be imperilled by a curtailment of the negro's opportunities for education. Such fair treatment of one phase of the difficult race problem is certain to strengthen the feeling that the South must be left to settle the negro question for itself.

A recent decision by the Supreme Court of the United States concerning preferences in bankruptcy is causing something very like consternation among merchants. The Bankruptcy Act forbids preferences to creditors, requiring any creditor who has been preferred to surrender what he has received if he proposes to prove any claims or receive any dividends. By the recent decision it is established that the receipt of money by a creditor within four months of the time when a petition in bankruptcy is filed by or against the person making the payment, constitutes a preference. Thus, if A sells to B a bill of goods amounting to \$2,000, and is paid in cash, and thereupon sells him another bill of goods for \$4,000 on ninety days' credit, within which time B goes into bankruptcy, A becomes a preferred creditor. If he proposes to claim his \$4,000, he must give up his \$2,000. If he wants to keep his \$2,000, he must give up his \$4,000. The fact that he had no intention of obtaining a preference, or that his debtor had no intention of giving him one, is immaterial; the law presumes the intention from the mere fact of payment. Business men should bestir themselves to have Congress amend the law so as to lessen, if not completely do away with, the severity of this provision.

We confess our inability to discover a reasonable excuse for the red tape surrounding the redemption of unused revenue stamps. No doubt it will be argued that the Government is not responsible for the purchase of more stamps by the citizen than he needed for immediate use. If he bought a supply for the next month or the next six months, and the tax was revoked before

he could use his stamps, the risk was his. He might have avoided it by buying stamps only as he needed them. This is a pretty enough theory, but every one knows that business could not be conducted on such a system. If users of stamps did not buy in quantity for future needs, the Government would have to double its selling agencies. But the merits of the case are quite independent even of this consideration. Stamps bought and paid for are, in our judgment, a legitimate claim on the Government, after the tax has been revoked. There is no more danger of counterfeits in these than there is in postage-stamps or Government currency. The whole provision for a series of affidavits by revenue officers, "first purchasers," and so on, impresses us as solemn nonsense; and the refusal to redeem in lots of less than \$2 as a rather outrageous discrimination. It seems to us that a "business management" of the Treasury ought to have done better than this.

Indictments against a high Tammany official for neglect of duty and conspiracy afford ample ground for congratulations to the District Attorney on the part of all good citizens. Fire Commissioner Scannell is charged not only with neglect of duty, but also with evasion of the law and perpetration of fraud upon the city, each of which is accounted a misdemeanor and is punishable by a fine of \$1,000 or a year's imprisonment, or both, while to be found guilty on either of the last two scores involves removal from office and renders a man incapable of ever holding office in the city again. The charges of conspiracy cover the relations between Commissioner Scannell and William L. Marks, the go-between who has had to be employed by people who wanted to sell supplies to the Fire Department. The methods pursued were set forth in great detail by Mr. Franklin Matthews in an article published by the *Evening Post* a few weeks ago, and the statements therein made were substantiated by the testimony before the grand jury of nearly all the manufacturers of hose and fire apparatus in the city, who showed that it was impossible for them to do business with the department unless they gave Marks a "rake-off" by raising the prices of their supplies above the market rate. District Attorney Philbin has been subjected to severe criticism for weeks past by people who complained that he "wasn't doing anything." The District Attorney's office is one which cannot be efficiently conducted by outsiders, who are not familiar with the facts at the command of the incumbent; and a man of high character and lofty standards is entitled to the presumption that his course is in the public interest, even if he is not "playing to the galleries." Mr. Philbin had a right to expect better treatment

than he has received. Fortunately, he is philosophical by nature, and was content to wait for time to furnish such vindication of his hard work and good sense as is afforded by these indictments.

Wayne MacVeagh never delivers an address without saying something worth hearing, and he was at his best in his Phi Beta Kappa oration at Cambridge on Thursday on "The Value of Ideals in American Politics." It is certainly true, as he remarked at the outset, that "there is no better work to be done at present by an American university than to again unseal those fountains of idealism where the human spirit has so often refreshed itself when weary of a too material age, to reawaken that enthusiasm for the moral law which we have all somehow lost, and to impress upon a people essentially noble, but now too deeply absorbed in the pursuit of wealth for wealth's sake, the advantages which the cherishing of ethical ideals may bring to all of us, even to those who pride themselves above all things upon being practical." Recognizing that the spirit of the age is commercial, Mr. MacVeagh set out to prove "the commercial value of ethical ideals," as constituting the safest source of the political aspirations of the majority of our people and the most conservative influence in our national life. He proceeded to enforce the dangers to "the members of the contented class" which are involved in their tolerant attitude towards the corrupt use of money in our elections and in our representative bodies; in their indifference regarding the unjust treatment of the negro population in this country; in their readiness to accept standards for our conduct abroad which are inconsistent with our traditions, and which make "many Protestant clergymen mistakenly suppose that they can safely substitute at this day in our country the teaching of Mohammed for the teaching of Christ."

The final enactment of the French Associations Bill, directed primarily against Catholic religious orders, is something more than a political triumph for M. Waldeck-Rousseau. His skill in piloting the law through both Chamber and Senate is undeniable, and he seems to have strengthened his hold on office, already so unprecedented in the recent political annals of France. But the deftest management could not have succeeded so remarkably unless a strong popular feeling had been behind the measure. The truth is that a sort of reaction against Catholicism, on its political side, is astir throughout all Continental Europe. We see it in the disturbances in Spain. It was the great issue in the elections in Belgium, ten days ago, when the Catholics increased their Parliamentary strength and upset

the Ministry. In Germany the renewed expression of South-German jealousy of Prussia is thought to be, in part, of Catholic inspiration. Thus it appears that the anti-Catholic legislation in France is only a symptom of an unrest and dissatisfaction which are general.

Lord Salisbury quite outdid the traditional reproaches of the wolf addressed to the lamb, when he said last week that what the English were doing in South Africa was simply defending their own colonies against an "invasion by neighbors" who were "actuated by the greed of territory." It was for Englishmen to "defend the sanctity of their frontier." But they ought also to defend the sanctity of common sense; and every man possessed of a particle of it knows that Salisbury's description of the Boer war is grotesque. There is, in such matters, an intelligent opinion of contemporary foreigners which is the verdict of posterity; and that opinion will be left aghast and amazed at the British Premier's language. It seems to betoken a disturbance of his customary cynical serenity. The cause is obvious. Though politically secure, as the latest bye-election at Stratford shows again, the Salisbury Government is not satisfying even to its own followers. The Prime Minister complained that Conservative members would not attend the House, thus leaving Mr. Balfour again and again with humiliatingly small majorities. It is clear that the South African war has ceased to be popular. It seems to be endless, and to be calling endlessly for men and money. That naturally produces depression of party spirits, but we do not see how they can be elevated by such absurd attempts as Lord Salisbury's to cheer on his supporters.

The preliminary tables of the English census taken last April are already issued, and, judging from experience, they may be regarded as practically final. In 1891 the difference between the preliminary and final reports amounted to no more than 1,507 persons out of a total population of 29,002,525. The population is now 32,526,375, the figures in both cases being for England and Wales. The decennial increase is 12.17 per cent., while in the previous decade it was 11.65 per cent. The rate of increase is lower than in any other decade of the century, except in those terminating in 1861 and 1891, but the absolute increase is the greatest yet recorded. When we examine the "natural" increase—that is, the excess of births over deaths—it appears that in the decennial ending 1891 not only was the percentage of increase higher than in the last ten years, but the absolute increase was greater, being 3,629,474, as compared with 3,592,553. Had the same rate of increase con-

tinued, the increase in the last decade would have been 4,052,596, the falling off in the natural ratio of increase being 459,043. The discrepancy is due to the lessening flow of emigration. Had the loss by excess of emigration over immigration borne the same proportion to the population in the last ten years as in the preceding period, it would have amounted to 671,502, whereas it was actually but 70,000. Had it not been for the war in South Africa, it seems probable that for the first time immigration would have exceeded emigration. The population of Ireland has decreased, and is nearly 250,000 less than ten years ago, but the ratio of decrease is only about half of that prevailing then. The total emigration during the last decade has been less than half a million, far less than in the middle of the century. For the first time Scotland is more prosperous than Ireland.

One missionary to China, the Rev. Gilbert Reid, frankly defends in the *Forum* the looting practised by the foreign troops and foreign civilians in Tientsin and Peking. His article is called "The Ethics of Loot," but it turns out on reading to be much loot and no ethics. He speaks of "the romantic system of looting," and says that "the matter of loot is only one of high ethics," and, anyhow, quite "a minor consideration," being, in his mind, only a poetic way of punishing the Chinese for having "dared to defy the world and insult mankind." The attitude of this herald of the gospel of forgiveness is revealed in his calm statement: "Personally, I regret that the guilty suffered so little at my hands" (suffered, *i. e.*, by being looted). Clearly, there is no great amount of ethics, high or low, about this, but Mr. Reid seems to be laboring under the singular delusion that the laws of war countenance such looting as he sympathetically describes. Loot, he says, means only the lawful spoils of war. "If there has been no war, looting may be set down as wrong." But does not Mr. Reid know that looting is forbidden by the modern rules of war? Has he never heard of the principle laid down by international law that "the property, movable as well as immovable, of private persons in an invaded country is to remain uninjured"? Even what the army requires for its own subsistence can be taken only by "authorized persons at a fair value." But the indiscriminate plundering which Mr. Reid tells about with so much gusto, and which recalls the ravaging of the Palatinate, has not been heard of in civilized warfare since the time of the first Napoleon. Missionaries are, of course, entitled to set all the world right in matters of theology, but when they begin to talk about the laws of war, it would be well for them first to ascertain what these are:

"AT THE BAR OF HISTORY."

After keeping us for more than three years in the dark, the Administration has at last deigned to publish the diplomatic correspondence leading up to the war with Spain. This was at first promised in connection with the President's war message of April 11, 1898; but, on second thought, it was stated, Mr. McKinley determined that it would not be "prudent" to give out the documents at that time. As we read them now, it is easy to agree that it would have been a piece of terrible imprudence to give them to the world then, since they prove that the war was needless. This tardy publication of the dispatches makes it impossible to deny what, in fact, Minister Woodford and Senator Hoar and Congressman Boutelle openly asserted in 1898, that there would have been no war but for the violence of Congress and the weakness of the President. From the official correspondence we learn the truth of the statement made by Mr. Boutelle in explanation of his vote against the war—namely, that "Spain had conceded nearly every one of our demands, and seemed plainly disposed to meet them all," so that, but for the insane fury of Congress, before which Mr. McKinley felt terrorized, we should, as Minister Woodford said publicly in Boston in October, 1898, have seen the Spanish flag leave Cuba "without the firing of a shot or the loss of a life."

The proof is very simple. It lies on the face of the dispatches. Passing by all preliminaries, we find Secretary Day on March 27, 1898, telegraphing instructions to Minister Woodford to make three demands:

"First, Armistice until October 1. Negotiations meantime looking for peace between Spain and insurgents through friendly offices of President United States.

"Second. Immediate revocation of reconcentrado order.

"Add, if possible,

"Third. If terms of peace not satisfactorily settled by October 1, President of the United States to be final arbiter between Spain and insurgents."

Now what followed? On March 31 the reconcentrado order was revoked, and a special credit of 3,000,000 pesetas put at the disposal of Governor-General Blanco to care for the homeless Cubans. There was our demand number two promptly complied with. The offer to concede demand number one was cabled by Minister Woodford on April 5. It is the critical dispatch of the whole volume, and its suppression until now certainly shows an extraordinary degree of "prudence," and possibly something else, in the President. We publish it in full, and we ask for it the careful attention of those clergymen and church people who were driving Congress on to war:

"Should the Queen proclaim the following before twelve o'clock noon of Wednesday,

April 6, will you sustain the Queen, and can you prevent hostile action by Congress?

"At the request of the Holy Father, in this Passion Week and in the name of Christ, I proclaim immediate and unconditional suspension of hostilities in the Island of Cuba.

"This suspension is to become immediately effective so soon as accepted by the insurgents in that island, and is to continue for the space of six months, to the 5th day of October, eighteen ninety-eight.

"I do this to give time for passions to cease, and in the sincere hope and belief that, during this suspension, permanent and honorable peace may be obtained between the insular Government of Cuba and those of my subjects in that island who are now in rebellion against the authority of Spain.

"I pray the blessing of Heaven upon this Truce of God, which I now declare in His name, and with the sanction of the Holy Father of all Christendom.

"April 5, 1898.

"Please read this in the light of all my previous telegrams and letters. I believe that this means peace, which the sober judgment of our people will approve long before next November, and which must be approved at the bar of final history.

"I permit the papal nuncio to read this telegram, upon my own responsibility, and without committing you in any manner. I dare not reject this last chance for peace. I will show your reply to the Queen in person, and I believe that you will approve this last conscientious effort for peace."

What could be more moving, more pathetic, more like an unexpected messenger of peace to be greeted with devout thankfulness by all Christian hearts? But how did President McKinley greet it? Why, he telegraphed Minister Woodford that he "highly appreciated the Queen's desire for peace," but that he could not "assume to influence the action of the American Congress." Yet if an armistice were offered, he would "communicate that fact to Congress." Yes, but how did he communicate it? Did he cite a syllable of the pious and exalted language of the Queen? Did he explain how the venerable head of the Catholic Church had exerted himself to prevent a wicked war? No, he simply added a couple of vague and cold paragraphs at the very end of his message. Read the passionate, eager words of the Queen of Spain, read the solemn exhortations of Minister Woodford, and then read how President McKinley presented the matter to Congress:

"Yesterday, and since the preparation of the foregoing message, official information was received by me that the latest decree of the Queen Regent of Spain directs Gen. Blanco, in order to prepare and facilitate peace, to proclaim a suspension of hostilities, the duration and details of which have not yet been communicated to me.

"This fact, with every other pertinent consideration, will, I am sure, have your just and careful attention in the solemn deliberations upon which you are about to enter. If this measure attains a successful result, then our aspirations as a Christian, peace-loving people will be realized. If it fails, it will be only another justification for our contemplated action."

Congress, of course, paid not the slightest attention to this perfunctory tail-end of a message, all the previous trend and

argument of which made for war. What the President should have done was to throw away the message which he had prepared, face the altered situation with an altered policy, and go boldly to Congress and the country with Woodford's dispatch, including the Queen's elevated proclamation. He could have truly hailed it as a great triumph of American diplomacy. Our two categorical demands were both granted, and the third conditional one would easily follow. The President could have appealed irresistibly to the sober sentiment of the country. He could have especially appealed to our Catholic population, on the strength of the Queen's references to religious motives and the sanction of the Pope. He could have made peace certain. But, alas, the "stop-watch" of Congress was held on him; he had promised his alarmed and excited fellow-partisans to send in a war message and not let the Democrats win an advantage, and so "this last conscientious effort for peace," as Minister Woodford called it, this grandest opportunity that ever came to a Christian President, was miserably neglected, and the war ensued.

Gen. Woodford urged President McKinley to think not only of "November" (that is, the election which the Republicans feared the Democrats would win if a war was not forced), but of "the bar of final history." It is to that tribunal, of course, that the cause must now go. After all the shouting and the flattery have died away, the historian will settle down to the documentary evidence concerning the Spanish war, and impartially and fearlessly assign praise or blame. We know, for example, what the historians now say of Polk and the Mexican war. Will not their verdict on McKinley and the war with Spain be fully as unpleasant reading for Americans fifty years from now? We fear so. Partisan newspapers to-day will not even print the evidence. A busy and careless people will not read it. But history will do its whole duty, will let nothing escape it, will weigh motive and opportunity and responsibility, and will fix the stigma of cowardice, the shame of weak yielding to clamor, where it belongs; and will do it with the serenity and the certainty of all-judging Jove.

THE OHIO REPUBLICANS.

When a State election is vehemently asserted to be of vast national importance, it is a safe guess that the party so declaring is troubled about local issues. Such is clearly the case with the Republicans in Ohio. They loudly affirm that the continuance of prosperity, with the dignity and almost the existence of the country, depend upon the result of the polling in Ohio next November. Senator Hanna says that if the Democrats should succeed, it would be such a blow to "confidence" that he,

for his part, could not undertake any longer to guarantee a chicken in the pot to every workingman. Hearing these cries of alarm, the experienced observer at once asks, "What is it, that makes Hanna so afraid he will lose the State this fall?"

First, the temperance issue. There is an Anti-Saloon League in Ohio, 60,000 voters strong, and they have been worrying the Republican machine in the customary inconsiderate manner of their kind. They actually demand that the party of moral ideas keep its pledges, and pass, instead of throttling, a local-option law. They made a dead set particularly at the Lieutenant-Governor, whom they denounced as an attorney for the saloons. In fact, they raised such a clamor that Hanna concluded to sacrifice the man, and he was accordingly denied a renomination. But this "displeased the liquor interests." So, to placate their wrath, Hanna named a "liberal" Republican from Cincinnati, one Nippert, in place of the rejected Caldwell. But see how unreasonable men are! This offended the Anti-Saloon League afresh. Its representatives left Columbus expressing "displeasure," and on the next train the liquor men departed, "very much displeased."

Such are the difficulties of an Ohio statesman when a miserable State issue interferes with his heroic support of the Administration in the Philippines. The louder he shouts about national issues, the more likely is it that the temperance issue will cut a large figure. The Prohibition vote in Ohio is apt to be greatest in an off year like this; and Senator Hanna's attempt to say "Good Lord" to the anti-saloon people in the same breath with "Good Devil" to the liquor vote, is not likely to deceive anybody. This is what he calls refusing to "interfere with the traditions of the Republican party upon moral questions." As he was referring to the temperance question, it is clear that he conceives the traditional attitude of the Republicans to be "on the fence." People talk about appealing from Philip drunk to Philip sober; but it is evidently true of the Ohio Republicans, as the English Liberal said of the weakness of the Tory Government for the brewers, that the last man they want to meet is "Philip sober."

The Democrats naturally stand to gain in Ohio by this rather conspicuous falling of their opponents between the anti-saloon and the saloon stools; but it is on another issue that they are most confident and the Republicans most concerned. This is the question of taxation—especially the taxation of corporations. It must be remembered that the Ohio Democrats have already thrust this burning question to the front, and have scored heavily on it in municipal elections. In Cleveland, in Columbus, in Toledo, they elected Mayors by unex-

pected and unprecedented majorities, and did it largely on a platform calling for a readjustment of the taxes on corporations. It is evident that they mean to make their State campaign mainly on this issue. Hence the troubled dreams of Hanna.

His platform betrays his trepidation on this subject, and at the same time plays into the hands of the enemy. The Republicans say they favor a "revision of the tax laws" so as to "require all classes of property to bear their equal and just share of taxation." Here is a practical confession of the Democratic charge that the existing tax laws are unequal and unjust. One can imagine how Mayor Tom Johnson and Mayor "Golden-Rule" Jones will ring the changes on this, and will ask the Republicans why, having had full power in the State for so many years, they have done nothing to fulfil their repeated pledges of tax reform. A similar joint in the Republican harness reveals itself in what the platform says about Trusts. It calls for "effective legislation" against them, "vigorously enforced." Yet will it be believed that the same party in the same State plumed itself in 1899 on having passed a "stringent law" against Trusts, of which it promised the "rigid enforcement"? Something must be wrong, the wicked Democrats will say, with either the law or the enforcement, if the work is still all to do.

We have pointed out the State issues which ought to be dominant in Ohio this year. But it is doubtful if they will be allowed to be. The Republicans will strain every nerve to make national questions paramount, and the Democrats are only too likely to help them do it. In the first place, they will, it is expected, put forward John McLean for United States Senator, and thus thrust a national and at the same time weak candidate into the State canvass. Then they will be just foolish enough, in all probability, to endorse Bryan and Bryanism again, even if gingerly, and thus retire to the background the two issues on which, if they would shrewdly conduct their campaign, they might have good hopes of carrying Ohio.

EUROPE AND THE "AMERICAN PERIL."

Perhaps the most striking thing about the much-discussed plan for a European "trade combination against America" is the fact that nobody takes it seriously. At intervals of about a fortnight, some French or German or Austrian legislator rises from his seat to warn his countrymen against the "American peril." Nothing, he tells the public, will save the trade of Europe short of "union against America." We have not observed in these speeches, however, any very intelligible programme for such "union."

In fact, the one person who has it in his power to do something practical in the matter—we mean the European consumer—appears to be wholly unmoved. If the monthly foreign trade statistics are to be credited, he goes on buying American goods with the stolid indifference displayed by our own citizens a dozen years ago, when they would poll their vote on Tuesday for "protection against European manufactures," and insist on Wednesday that the cutlery sold to them in the hardware store should be "real Sheffield." And if the attitude of the foreign peoples is that of bland indifference, it must be admitted that the American frame of mind is one of calmness not unmixed with pride. To hear half a dozen foreign politicians demanding that something be done to stop the Americans from beating Europe in the open market, awakens sentiments in the average man not wholly unpleasant.

In all this chorus of protest against the American "trade invasion," we have seen little effort to analyze the situation. A few intelligent English students of the question have pointed out the fact that our manufacturing Trusts are selling cheaply abroad because they can keep prices up at home. From this they have argued that this sort of export trade may perhaps be restrained by reduction of American tariffs, with the resultant lowering of domestic prices. But even the trade observers who are shrewd enough to detect this point of weakness are aware that it does not tell the whole story. The United States has had its protective tariff for a generation, yet it is less than five years since we began to threaten competitive export markets. Not only so, but in years when most of the tariff schedules were even higher than to-day's, American market-places were full of simultaneous lamenting over the inroads of English and Continental manufactures, and our own inability to get a foothold in neutral markets. Something quite unconnected with the tariff must have happened between 1891 and 1901, and we should say that the first effort of an intelligent foreign critic ought to be to find what that something is.

For ourselves, we do not think the answer difficult. We cannot appeal to other periods, because the combination of circumstances now existing is unique. Quite without exception, our previous epochs of sudden increase in agricultural exports have been characterized by decrease in export of manufactures. Thus, in the period of 1877-1880, when annual shipments of agriculture rose by \$226,000,000, the annual outgo of manufactured goods contracted by \$33,000,000. The fiscal year 1892 witnessed a gain of \$157,000,000 in agricultural exports, but we sent out ten millions less of manufactures. Yet the phenomenal rise of our cotton and cereal

exports in the last four years has been steadily accompanied by expanding manufactured exports.

The explanation, as we take it, lies in the very peculiar conditions of the last five years. They have been, as every one now knows, a period of sudden and world-wide increase in demand from the consumer. This was as true in Europe as in America. Demand not only depleted stocks of goods on hand, but strained existing facilities of production. Nothing is plainer than the fact that English producers were not prepared for it. When they began to make preparations, they were confronted, first with a strike which for months tied up almost the entire machinists' trade, and second with a protracted foreign war which drew off by tens of thousands the country's laboring population. France made little or no effort to regain ascendancy. Germany alone of European States seemed able to meet the situation, yet, with the Russian railway orders on the books of its manufacturers, it was unable to compete with America in time deliveries elsewhere.

This unusual foreign situation happened to coincide with three striking phenomena in America—a wholesale readjustment of prices, as a result of four disappointing business years; an immense increase of available capital, as a result of our lucky harvests; and the introduction of working economies into manufacture, on an unprecedented scale. The outcome of such union of forces was inevitable. During at least two years, American makers filled up foreign orders where there was no one else able to do so. Then, when the foreign manufacturers caught up with their order-books again, they found an alert competitor in possession of the field, which it was not disposed to relinquish.

The real question then remains, how permanent can this movement be, and how will it be affected as conditions change? That they are changing, is already manifest. To-day the foreign demand for manufactured goods has contracted visibly, and foreign manufacturers are seeking a market for their surplus. Our total export of manufactures, in the first five months of 1901, has already decreased nine million dollars in value from last year, and very substantially in quantity. The huge supply of American capital remains, and inflation of prices has been checked; so much is in our favor. But competition in neutral fields is no longer one-sided, and the contest comes squarely down to a question of relative facilities. If our manufacturers have introduced such improvements in methods of production and distribution as will enable them to undersell European makers, and if they are willing to keep down prices, they will hold the markets. When this doubt has been fairly solved, the position will be plainer. We should suppose that, under

such circumstances, a wide-awake foreign manufacturer would watch for the chance of regaining what he could of his lost field of export trade, and not limit himself to vague appeals for "union against America."

A DEPLORABLE STRIKE.

The affairs of the National Cash Register Company, whose works are at Dayton, Ohio, are of more than local interest. Probably nowhere in the world have the managers of a corporation shown a more intelligent interest in the welfare of their workmen. The greatest attention has been paid to hygienic and even to æsthetic conditions, not only in and around the factory buildings, but also in the houses and grounds rented to employees. To enumerate the various improvements and conveniences introduced by the company requires a number of pages in Mr. Shuey's recent book on 'Factory People and their Employers.' The experiment has attracted the attention of observers in all parts of the civilized world, and the works at Dayton have been inspected by hosts of visitors, whose testimony has been enthusiastically favorable.

The particulars in which a thoughtful regard for the interests of workmen has been manifested are altogether too numerous to mention; but the solicitude displayed for the welfare of the female employees deserves especial commendation. They enjoy the common benefits of libraries, schools, lectures, etc., and they have a number of special advantages. They begin work at eight o'clock, they have a recess of ten minutes in the morning, an hour for luncheon, another recess of ten minutes, and they cease working at twenty minutes past five. The luncheon is served at a charge of five cents, in a bright, decorated room, furnished with easy-chairs, with a piano, with books and magazines. Access to this room is by an elevator operated exclusively for the women. Elaborately furnished dressing-rooms, with combs, brushes, and even curling-irons with the necessary heating apparatus, are provided. Well-appointed bath-rooms are attached, and there are "rest-rooms," each with five cots, under the care of a matron. Every one is given an apron and a pair of sleeves for the protection of the street dress, the laundry work being done by the company. On Saturday there is a half-holiday and a full day's wages. By arrangement with a street railway, cars are in waiting at the close of the day, so that every one has a seat; and the women are dismissed in time to get away before the men pour forth. The provisions for the men are equally enlightened, if less elaborate.

Until very recently it was supposed that this policy had been highly successful, and that the employees appreciated

the efforts of their employers to make their toil not only wholesome, but also agreeable. The community was thought to be exceptionally favored and happy, and the "labor problem" appeared to be solved. Suddenly, more than two months ago, for reasons that have not yet been made clear to the public, the workmen went on strike. The original source of trouble was the washing of the towels, which the company furnished free, by washerwomen who did not belong to a trade-union. A committee of workmen informed the company that the work must be taken from these women and given to a union laundry. Rather than do this, the company gave up furnishing the towels. The next episode was a demand that the compressed-air springs on the doors should be removed, because they had been manufactured by a concern that employed non-union labor. To this demand the company, rather weakly, it would seem, yielded. Presently the demand was made that the company should discharge a man simply because he did not belong to a union, and again the company yielded. It went so far as to pay \$15 a week for three months to each of two men discharged for lying and drinking and neglecting their work, rather than have trouble. But when there came a demand that it should reinstate five men dismissed because there was nothing for them to do, the company, after its offer to submit the question to arbitration had been declined, refused to yield further. The members of the two trade-unions interested struck, and the operation of the works necessarily ceased.

It is hard to believe that the formation of trade-unions has in this case benefited their members. A year and a half ago there were no unions, and the relations between employers and workmen were apparently ideal. Since the unions became aggressive, these relations have been strained, and the condition of the workmen has in several respects become worse. The company appears to have been conciliatory in the extreme; but it is, of course, absolutely impossible for it to consent to retain in its employment men whose services are unsatisfactory. Its products would very soon become unsalable if it was obliged to employ inferior workmen. So far as we can ascertain the facts, this was the issue which brought on the strike and which has thus kept 2,300 working people idle from the end of April to the beginning of last week.

And now the workmen have concluded to "return to work as they left it." We very much fear that cannot be. They can, after a year or two, save the \$200,000 or \$300,000 which they have lost in wages; but they can hardly restore the good feeling and mutual respect that once prevailed. Doubtless the managers will continue to take thought for the welfare of their workmen; but they can-

not feel their former hopeful enthusiasm. They may comply with the demands of duty; but they cannot take their former pleasure in their plans. Nor can the workmen, after so humiliating a defeat, be in the mood to accept aught of favor or to respond to benevolent advances. The loss is not confined to the parties to this controversy; it extends throughout the industrial world. Many people had regarded the conditions at Dayton as ideal, and every one interested in the progress of the working classes will feel discouragement at the situation. We should almost be pleased to learn that the strike was the fault of the employers, for their delinquency, however deplorable, would not impair the merits of their former policy. But we fear that the blame lies with the employees, and that they have done much to becloud the future relations of labor and capital.

MAFIA: OBSERVATIONS BY A NON-MEMBER.—I.

The foreign visitor to Sicily generally knows the word Mafia, and has often enough made up his mind as to its connotation before visiting the island; but if, during his tour, he interrogates men, as well as looks at things, he is certain to find his notions of Mafia changed, and very probably confused. There seems to be a tolerably regular course of mental procedure in this transformation of opinion. On landing at Palermo or Messina (the most frequent ports of entry from the north), the stranger finds the glittering streets, electric lights, movement, show, and external splendor that go to make up the life of any rattling modern town, and very promptly concludes that the Sicilian Mafia of fiction—as described by Mr. Crawford in 'Corleone,' for instance—is as much of a figment as, according to historians, the *Vehmgericht* in 'Anne of Geierstein.' Let us suppose that a good letter of introduction procures him the somewhat rare favor of a dinner, or an evening entertainment, at a Sicilian house, where some talkative fellow-guest appears willing to be interviewed. "Ma, caro Signorino! the Mafia, it is an invention of the politicians and the journalists! They all impose on the *forestiere*, and give our poor Sicily a bad name. I have lived here all my life, and I give you my word that I know as little about it as you do. Please, for our sake, do not go away with the idea that it plays any real part in our political, social, or private life." All Sicilians talk like this—at first. And if the reader will but examine the sentences carefully, he will see that they contain no direct word of untruth. It is quite possible for the traveller so enlightened, or rather put off the scent, to complete a several weeks' tour of Sicily without perceiving a definite sign of the Mafia, still less of the brigandage of tradition; and yet both exist, though so disguised, so subtly elusive of detection, that, with the most favorable opportunities, the stranger can but hazard a conjecture as to the real nature and minute ramifications of a condition which appears to be rooted deep down in the psychology of the Sicilian people.

It is only little by little that inklings

come to him, discreetly suggested by foreign residents, interpreted by himself from scanty indications here and there, whispered by a native who chafes under wrongs, but best of all overheard by a pair of sharp ears in the murmur of a café or a wineshop of doubtful repute. Under this weight of a slowly growing conviction, one becomes aware of the principal cause of that singular sense of constraint from which Sicilian life, even in large towns, seems to suffer so constantly, leading one to draw a breath of relief on quitting the island. There is an oppressiveness in the social atmosphere, in the elaborate punctilio of common address, in the suspicious attitude towards the stranger, in the gloomy looks on so large a proportion of faces; none of which are overcome by the rare outbursts of noisy gaiety.

For all these facts, explanations are only too ready. Sicily, we are told, has suffered for centuries under a system of private property-holding so onerous that life has become intolerable for the masses, who, in spite of the extraordinary fertility of the soil, are always on the verge of starvation. Immense *latifundia*, or tracts of country, are in the hands of great lords of the soil, often absentees; and between them and their peasant-farmers (whom they seldom see) come series of factors or agents, with power to collect rents at all costs and hazards. "We are not," said one of the peasants, "quite as badly off as our poor brothers in Calabria, who in the winter time may have to kill the house dog or cat to keep from dying of hunger; our land is rich. But, Signorino, do you know that, in this country of wine, I and my family look on it as a rare luxury, and it is now nearly a year since I tasted meat of any kind?" In many parts of the country, such destitution is undoubtedly increased by the amazing progression of the birth-rate. Girgenti, for instance, and the district round about are noted for the productivity of the women, who become mothers at a very early age, and frequently bear eight or ten children—sometimes more. A little reasonable application of Malthusianism in the right sense would do something towards relieving the pressure of population on food; but the Sicilian climate and the temperament of the people put this beyond all hope. And one might very well urge that, as in India, any vast sensible improvement in the well-being of the people would promptly be followed by further increase, so that the second state would be no better than the first. At the present time, according to all trustworthy accounts, the clergy have lost so much hold over the people that the multiplication is not, as in French Canada, to be ascribed to ecclesiastical influence; it comes rather from that apparently incurable spirit of improvidence which attends human life in warm countries, doubtless fostered by the juxtaposition of crowded domestic habits and quarters.

Outside conditions, too, have added to the widespread penury. An intelligent and talkative Messina lawyer, met by the present writer in a railway carriage, was most communicative on this point:

"Not long ago," said he, "we used to export quantities of sound red wine to France, where it was largely used for mixing purposes; since the new duties, that trade has fallen off more than 50 per cent. The phylloxera has ravaged our vineyards, and we cannot afford expensive foreign grafts.

Our oranges and lemons cannot compete on the American market against Florida and California, also protected by duties. The only thing left to us was olive oil, and to that, serious damage has been done by cottonseed oil and other bogus products. I know all this," he added, "for I cannot now sell anything off my own small estate, outside of the island. A few years ago I could add a few hundred francs a year to my income. You can judge how it affects the poor who have no other resources than the land, which, by the by, they do not own."

He might likewise have mentioned that the great sulphur-mining industry of Sicily has of late years suffered severely from competition with other sources of supply, either nearer the markets of the world or more readily accessible. And as the mining population was notoriously in bad straits before, we can easily imagine how little they can bear further reduction. In every branch of her industry Sicily appears to have been smitten.

One of the most commonly talked-of grievances, however, is the administration. It is not the purpose of this paper to enter into a general arraignment of the wastefulness of public expenditure in Italy, of which the signs are evident enough to any one who keeps his eyes open. In Sicily, as well as on the *Continente*, the stranger cannot fail to be struck with the extraordinary numbers of uniformed officials, ill-paid, it is true, but nevertheless from their very plethora a constant drain on the resources of the country. This form of exhaustion is commonly overlooked by those who ascribe the impoverishment of the country to military expenditure alone. One notes, too, that public works on an enormous scale, and at corresponding cost, appear from time to time to be undertaken in places where they are superfluous. For instance, behind the seaport of Trapani rises the rocky mass of Monte San Giuliano (the ancient Eryx), crowned by the little town, or village rather, of the same name. Now, this little settlement is, according to all accounts, slowly and steadily losing its population through emigration to the valleys. There is, indeed, no good reason why any one should continue to live there, for the summit is a bare rock, absolutely unproductive and frequently wrapped in chilling mists. And yet this barren crest is reached by means of a brand-new high road, winding in serpentine fashion like the best Alpine ways, and obviously constructed at immense expense, in all probability as the outcome of political manipulation. It implies, also, postal and diligence service, both of them sources of further expense.

Local administration comes in for its share of abuse. Some years ago, in a little village between Siena and Florence, the writer had the privilege of hearing the account given by a Tuscan artillery officer of his two years' residence in the smaller garrison towns of Sicily. He was fresh from the scene, and consequently eloquent. According to him, the crowding or herding together of families in single rooms arose from the utter impossibility of paying the local taxes on roomier quarters. In one village, he said, the local authorities, headed by the *sindaco* (mayor), had successfully resisted the wishes of the population for water-works, the reason being that the *sindaco* himself owned the village well and charged one sou on every bucket of water drawn from it. Such accounts one hears on all sides.

As a well-known economist wrote some

time ago in the *Nuova Antologia**: "In Italia paga di più chi possiede meno . . . Il povero paga il 50 per cento del carico tributario" (In Italy the poorer the man is, the more he has to pay . . . The poor man pays fifty per cent. of the revenue from taxation). A land-owner from the neighborhood of Ancona informed the writer that all the taxes on his property swallowed up forty-eight per cent. of its returns, and this in the relatively prosperous district of the Adriatic Marches. One can judge what it must be in poor Sicily. When we bear in mind, further, that objects of luxury are often quite unburdened, we wonder at the strange principle that seems to regulate such taxation. There is no tax on a saddle-horse, for that is no source of profit; but every goat on the Sicilian hillside gives its little quota to the Exchequer. A few months ago the municipal authorities of Palermo, being in want of money, suddenly proposed to raise the *dazio*, or octroi duty, on every chicken entering the gates to ten cents (50 centimes); they were stopped in time by ominous threats of a general uprising. Ten cents may appear small enough in New York; in Palermo, it is the price of a cab drive within the city limits. As a further proof of the cheapness of things, which may give the reader some notion of the enormity of the proposed tax, a restaurant-bill is subjoined of a dinner for two at the Cucina Trapani in Palermo, a place of excellent middle-class resort:

Bread	4 cents
Wine	10 cents
Vegetables	14 cents
Steak (for one) . .	12 cents
Veal (for one) . . .	12 cents
Fruit	5 cents

May 31, 1900.

57 cents (or 2 francs 85)

Both diners were satisfied with food and charges. The waiter considered himself well paid with a tip of six cents.

It is, of course, no easy matter for the tourist to gauge with any minute accuracy the state of feeling produced by this condition of affairs; nevertheless, there are plenty of indications that a submissive frame of mind is the exception rather than the rule. Getting out at the little station of Calatafimi, from which one drives to the ruins of Segesta, the writer was surprised to see that a Sicilian fellow-traveller, dressed as a sporting country gentleman, with shooting-coat and leggings, was met here by a pair of retainers, each armed with a Winchester rifle; and as they took their places in the open carriage which was waiting, one man-at-arms sat in front, the other behind, with guns in readiness. Every landed proprietor or agent visiting an estate is obliged, in certain parts of the island, to take these precautions for his own safety. There is not in Palermo to-day a single man of known wealth who would, without prior arrangements for the privilege with secret unofficial authority, walk alone and unarmed from the city gate to the suburb of Bagheria after nightfall, or extend his daily ride through the orange-groves of the Conca d'Oro.

Such facts as these are very likely to be denied by Sicilians, who are naturally jealous of the good name of their country, and extremely restive under anything like criticism from outsiders, although they are themselves perfectly ready to pass judgment on others. They will point to such and such a nobleman who visits his estates without

*October and November, 1899.

escort; but they omit to mention that he drives a pair or a four-in-hand of fast thoroughbreds, and covers the few miles between the railway station and his country-house at racing pace; also, that the country-house in question is well supplied with firearms and always ready to repel assailants. Some of the leading scientific men of the country are accompanied on their expeditions by a servant, who carries a gun along with the scientific apparatus. Nonsense, it is replied; that is for sporting purposes. But the gun is a Winchester, and what part of Sicily nowadays contains big game? To any one accustomed to other conditions of existence, it is simply appalling to note that nearly every peasant on his way to or from market, in such districts as Selinunte, or the neighborhood of Sciacca, carries a rifle slung in front of him on the saddle, and ready for immediate use. In the fields and vineyards, the same weapon is constantly observed, apparently laid carelessly on a heap of stones, but always within easy reach. It is not entirely reassuring to be told that the stranger is safe, though this is in one sense quite true. No danger attends the tourist on the beaten tracks (the only ones worth following for sight-seeing), and very little in the untrodden interior; for the simple reason that he is not known. The few hundred or thousand francs that he carries about his person cannot make it worth a brigand's while to run, for their sake, the risk of a close acquaintance with the dreaded carabinieri. But a man who can be held for ransom, while his captor is all the time making arrangements to emigrate the moment the money is paid, stands in a very different position, indeed.

Such brigandage is to-day admittedly all that exists. The bands of robbers are composed of outlaws who, after escaping the talons of justice, have taken refuge in the remoter and less accessible parts of the country, where they lie in wait, or whence they make excursions if any prey worth their while appears on the horizon. During weeks of *chômage*, they necessarily live from hand to mouth, and would doubtless die of hunger were it not for the moral and other support of those who can still move freely and openly in nominally respectable society. But such associations are now extremely rare and weak; the admirable organization of the carabinieri, as well as the daring of the men who compose the corps, could not fail to render the bandit's life less and less practicable. It is a genuine pleasure to hear outside and unbiassed testimony to the self-respect, the sense of duty, and the genial *bonhomie* of as fine a military constabulary as the world at present knows. Their work, however, is not made easier by the peasantry. Were it not for the secret connivance of the country-folk, it would be impossible for the *latitanti* to remain in hiding. A sound public feeling would lead man, woman, or child to reveal what the whole countryside knows. It is true that the criminals can and do use terrorism; but they are not by any means invariably the best shots in a country where practically every one of adult years (who can afford it) goes about armed. No; the real reason of the difficulty of crushing once and for all this lawless resistance is that it is not held to be disgraceful *in se*. Authority and its exercise have become so inseparably linked with the facts of oppression and misrule

that the ignorant, yes, and even many of the educated, have come to look upon the law-breaker—robber and assassin though he be—with caressing admiration.

This feeling, which is, of course, not openly confessed to a foreigner, is very fortunately not universal, any more than among school-boys the admiration for the pirate or our own Western highwaymen in their cowardly "holding-up" of trains. The Sicilian congener of these shows little more of real daring, except when cornered by the carabinieri; in which case a free shot with the chance of death is better than the prospect of Italian penal servitude on Ustica or the Ponza Islands. But, without the tacit sympathy of thousands, how could it be possible for him to live at all in an island with a population of not more than three and a half millions, fairly dispersed? Other facts come in here to support this conviction. Not many years ago, the most notorious of these bravoes actually printed "*Capo Brigante*" under his *nom de guerre* of Leone, on his visiting-card. Week after week, this ruffian would swagger openly through the Quattro Cantoni at Palermo, even appearing at the theatre or opera, where, though his person and crimes were perfectly well known, there were found none to hiss, or cry *Fuori!* Why, even to-day it still remains possible to hear respectable people, incapable of his crimes, speak of his courage and gallantry. He was a *galantuomo*, you will hear, because, although for weeks he held a gentleman for ransom, he yet saw that his prisoner was daily supplied with nice black coffee in the morning, and, when circumstances permitted, with a morning paper, *still in its wrapper*.

Moral perversion of judgment, or obliquity of vision, of this character is not uncommon as a social, even an ethnical, phenomenon. We all know races among which in their day the cattle-thief, the smuggler, or the landlord-shooter has been the hero of the people. In every one of these cases, as, indeed, in Sicily, it is easy to point to the external causes that further the growth of the feeling. Intolerable poverty, suffering, and privation in their acuter forms are enough to engender hatred of anything connected with power and law. Only a very shallow psychology, however, stops at that. Sentiments of this kind never take root in a soil not already prepared to receive them; and if to-day the masses who toil without enjoying would but show, singly and collectively, that they are disposed to respect regulation or ordinance, the task of philanthropist and legislator would be simplified.

THE NINTH JUBILEE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW.

EDINBURGH, June 17, 1901.

The University of Glasgow celebrated the 450th anniversary of its foundation on June 12, 13 and 14. The festival may rank with the celebration of the 500th anniversary of the University of Heidelberg in 1886 and the 1,000th anniversary of the University of Bologna a year later, and with the similar functions at Dublin, Halle, St. Petersburg—not to speak of Harvard's 250th anniversary in 1886, of Columbia's centennial in 1887, and of Princeton's more recent sesquicentennial. Yale's bicentennial, the reader will remember, is close at hand.

In the fifteenth century three of the four Scottish universities and at least a score of

Continental universities were founded. That at St. Andrews, 1411, was the earliest in Scotland, following hard upon that of Leipzig, which was founded in 1409. The University of Glasgow, second in Scotland, was established in 1451, by a bull of Pope Nicholas V., at the solicitation of James II., who in turn was urged by William Turnbull, Bishop of Glasgow. In order to "ensure that the classes should begin with some degree of celebrity," the Pope "granted a universal indulgence to all faithful Christians who should visit the Cathedral of Glasgow in 1451." The town then had fewer than three thousand inhabitants, but was chosen as a place of note, with a moderate climate and abundance of provisions. The Pope provided for a *Studium Generale*, not only in Theology and in Canon and Civil Law, but also in Arts, with all privileges, honors, and immunities that had been granted to the University of Bologna, which thus became in a sense the model of the new institution in Scotland. The scarlet color of the hoods of the graduates and of the gowns of the undergraduates, which was adopted soon after the establishment of the University, is said to be connected with the papal order. The students of the University are still divided into four "nations," which vote separately in the choice of the Lord Rector, although the nations are not such in the strict sense of the term, as in old times at Paris, but are simply different parts of Scotland.

The University of Glasgow was established, then, a year or two after the invention of the art of printing, and a couple of years before the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, in a century of great mental activity. It was not at once provided with an endowment. As one of the historians has said, "it came into the world as naked as any individual," but speedily students were gathered, and within three or four years arrangements had to be made for their housing. Naturally most of the teachers were connected closely with the Church of Rome, and after the Reformation the remnant of the University is said to have consisted of a principal, three regents (or tutors), four students, an *œconomus* (or steward), a cook, and a janitor, with a yearly income of £25. But in 1573 the Town Council transferred to the University certain endowments which had been put in their care by Queen Mary; the well-known and influential Andrew Melville, who had already lectured in Paris, was called from Geneva to be Principal in 1574; and in 1577 a new charter (*Nova Erectio*) was obtained, with new privileges. Money came in slowly, however, and in 1686 a regent of Humanity (*i. e.*, tutor of Latin) was allowed to depart with his salary of £20 for five years in arrears, because the entire college revenue was "super-expended," although that was not far from the time when no student was allowed to introduce into the college even a relative or a servant who did not understand the scholastic Latin in which all their conversation was to be held, and we may suppose a "regent of Humanity" to have been sadly needed.

Of the earliest University buildings little seems to be known. In 1631 the college buildings in High Street, which are now the college station of the underground railway, were begun. In the sixteenth century, students of sufficient means were expected to live in the college building, to dine at the Regents' table, and to be under strict discipline. One of the regents made

a round, morning and evening, to see that all was in order. But Boyd, who was called as Principal in 1615, made one of the conditions of his acceptance that he should not be bound to live with the students and to administer to them corporal punishment. About Melville's time an effort was made to change the system of "regenting," by which a class was assigned to a single instructor, who should teach them in all branches of learning; but the conservatives did not yield readily, and this system continued in Scotland until 1727, as it did in American colleges exactly one hundred years longer. That the instruction was not very advanced is indicated by the story that in 1704 the trial of the attainments of a candidate for a professorship of Greek was the analysis of ten previously prescribed verses of Homer's *Iliad*.

The chief growth of the University has been in the nineteenth century, although Adam Smith, Adam Reid, and William Hunter brought fame to it in the previous century. In 1800 the students numbered about 600; now they number 2,033—1,692 being men and 341 women. Of the men, 662 are in Arts, 600 in Medicine, 196 in Law, 161 in Science, 41 in Theology. Of the women, in Queen Margaret College, 271 are in Arts, 62 in Medicine, 6 in Science, 2 in Arts and Medicine. In the year 1899-1900, 395 degrees were conferred, of which 116 were M.A., 101 M.B., 93 Ch.B., 19 M.D., 18 B.D. the University has 31 professors, 35 lecturers, and 40 assistants and demonstrators. Women were first admitted to study for degrees in Scottish universities in 1892. Almost immediately the buildings, grounds, and endowments of Queen Margaret College, which had been established in 1883 for the higher education of women, were offered to the University; and while the college is dissolved, the name survives as designating the part of the University buildings and grounds which is devoted to the education of women. The Woman's Medical School is entirely conducted in Queen Margaret College. Some instructors meet only the women of the undergraduates, but in other classes the two sexes are together. In 1868 the present King Edward VII. laid the foundations of the new University buildings on Gilmore Hill, which was not then included within the limits of the city of Glasgow, and these were erected at a cost of about \$2,500,000, of which private munificence furnished more than half. The Marquis of Bute provided for the erection of the University chapel, which is called, after him, Bute Hall, and where most of the functions of the jubilee were held. The entrance archway and part of the fronts of the old college building erected in 1631 were brought to the new site, and, with some modifications, were re-erected as a lodge.

For the celebration of the ninth jubilee of the University of Glasgow, scholars gathered from every land. Two hundred institutions of learning were represented by nearly three hundred delegates, while other men of distinction came as specially invited guests. A list would be tedious, but it would include the names of Lord Kelvin, Lord Lister, Lord Dufferin, Lord Balfour, Sir Richard Jebb, Sir Henry Roscoe, Sir Joseph Hooker, Sir Norman Lockyer, Sir John Evans, Baron Reay, Lieutenant-General Sir Archibald Hunter, Sir Archibald Geikie, Henry Jackson and Swete of Cambridge, Mahaffy and

Bury of Dublin, the President of the Institute of France, Andrew Carnegie, and others whose names are almost or quite as well known. Of all foreign countries, the United States was most largely represented, twenty-eight institutions having delegates. Not many German scholars were present, since the festival fell in the middle of the academic semester, but France sent an imposing delegation. All wore official robes, in the midst of which the black academic gowns of the Americans seemed rather sombre. Lord Kelvin was clearly the one whom all most delighted to honor. Not to speak of his position in the world of science, his relation to the University of Glasgow is unparalleled; he was admitted to the University in 1834, when he was only in the eleventh year of his age, he served as professor from 1846 to 1899, and now is enrolled as a Research Fellow of the University. He represented the Royal Society and several foreign societies, he made an address on James Watt before the graduation exercises, and proposed the toast of Other Universities at the Corporation banquet which concluded the formal exercises.

The festival opened with a brief but impressive commemoration service in the cathedral on Wednesday morning, when the minister of the cathedral preached an appropriate sermon. That afternoon was devoted to the reception of addresses in Bute Hall. The delegates were carefully marshalled in an adjoining room, and were welcomed by Principal Story, the Vice-Chancellor of the University, in a tactful address, in which he referred to the relations and ties which had existed between the other institutions and countries and his own. Turning to our countrymen, he said:

"When the Pilgrim Fathers crossed the Atlantic they carried with them not only as concentrated an essence of Protestant religion and political liberalism as could in those, or indeed in any, days be carried in one vessel across perilous seas, but also that sturdy respect for knowledge and learning which leavened the austerity of the austere Puritans' views of life, and kept their minds free from the stagnation of mere sectarianism. By and by it embodied itself in Harvard, in Yale, in Princeton; and, expanding with the expansion of the great American States since their independence was achieved, has planted over the length and breadth of that huge country institutions which, in their thorough organization and their opulence of resource, attest at once the educational science and the generous liberality of its citizens."

This function of presentation of addresses occupied three hours, although the delegates were not expected to speak, but only to offer their written greetings. The addresses were prevailingly in Latin, although some were in English, and others in Sanskrit or in Japanese. A chorus of students sang the old "Gaudeamus" as the procession entered the hall, and a verse of the appropriate national hymn or song as each group of delegates was led up to be presented. The delegates were introduced by the Clerk of the Senate, Dr. Stewart, whose voice remained strong and clear to the close of the function.

On Wednesday evening an "At Home" was given at Queen Margaret College, and a "gaudeamus" or smoking-concert was held by the students at their Union, where informal speeches were made by Lord Balfour, the Bishop of Ripon, and others. On Thursday morning, after addresses by Lord Kelvin on James Watt and by Professor

Smart on Adam Smith, the Vice-Chancellor proceeded to the conferring of honorary degrees, twenty-two D.D.'s and one hundred and nine LL.D.'s. The graduates were arranged alphabetically in the two classes, and were conducted by stewards (or ushers) before the Vice-Chancellor. The Clerk of the Senate called each in a loud voice, and the Vice-Chancellor placed a cap upon and murmured a brief formula over the head of the recipient of the degree as he knelt before him. Then the receiver of the degree had a hood put about his neck, and signed his name in the book of the University. That each should be so clearly introduced was well, for all present were interested to identify men of distinction whom they had not known. A specially hearty welcome was given to the Bishop of Ripon, to Lord Dufferin, to Lord Balfour, to Andrew Carnegie (who was presented as one "whose name would descend to all generations of Scottish students as the most munificent benefactor of the universities of his native country"), to Lieut.-Gen. Hunter, and to three ladies who received degrees—Miss Emily Davies, the founder of Girton College, Mrs. Campbell, the originator of the movement for the higher education of women in Glasgow, and Miss Weston, whose labors have been devoted to the good of sailors. Almost exactly one-tenth of the honorary degrees fell to scholars of the United States. Professor Briggs and Professor Francis Brown of Union Theological Seminary were among the twenty-two who received the degree of D.D., and the degree of LL.D. was conferred on Farlow of Harvard, Seymour of Yale, Baldwin of Princeton, White of Cornell, Wenley of Michigan, C. K. Adams of Wisconsin, Gayley of California, Meyer of Clark, Dr. Barkan of Cooper Medical College of San Francisco, and the Hon. Charlemagne Tower, United States Ambassador to Russia. Clearly in most cases the degree was determined by the institution which was represented, though the average distinction of the recipient is high.

On Thursday afternoon the new Botanical Building was opened with an address by Sir Joseph Hooker, whom Lord Lister, in moving a vote of thanks, called "the principal pillar and ornament of botanical science in the world." Sir Joseph began by referring to his recollections of the study of botany in the first quarter of the last century! A *Conversazione* was held in Bute Hall on Thursday evening, at which more than two thousand people were present in gorgeous array. On Friday morning an address by Professor Young on William Hunter was read by Professor Bower, and was followed by an organ recital. That afternoon the guests of the University were invited to a reception at the Art Galleries, within the grounds of the International Exhibition, which lies at the foot of the hill on which the University stands. On Friday evening the Corporation of the city of Glasgow gave a banquet in the great hall of the municipal buildings, in which nearly five hundred took part. The speaking after dinner was good. The Provost, who presided, is a natural orator, and all were glad to hear Lord Dufferin, Lord Kelvin, and the others who spoke. The great speech of the evening, however, was made by Sir Richard Jebb, who said, among other things:

"The universities of our country are feeling more or less the pressure of the demand which is sometimes vaguely called utili-

tarian. We are told from many quarters and in many tones that the subjects and methods of university study must be brought into more direct and immediate relations with the pursuits of professional careers. This is a demand which the universities cannot resist, and is founded largely in reason. It is a demand which many of our universities and colleges are doing their best to meet, but it also imposes on them a clear duty. Their duty as universities and as seats of the highest education is not merely to yield to that demand; their duty is to guide and instruct it. One function of the university is to safeguard the intellectual standard of the nation—to take heed, when the demand for useful knowledge is made in relation to higher education, that the term shall not be misinterpreted or degraded. It is the function of the university to explain what is utility in regard to the higher education. The truly useful studies of the higher education are those which develop the faculties of the mind and discipline the intelligence."

On the same evening as the Corporation banquet, the students of the University gave a ball which was largely attended even by those guests who first went to the banquet. In the whole festival the students had an interesting but not very large part. The necessary limitations of space prevented their free admission to the functions. But since the festival fell in the time of the summer session, comparatively few undergraduates were in town, and one hundred tickets to each function were given to them to be distributed by lot; sixty more undergraduates were present as members of the choir, and others still as ushers. At the graduation exercises they were not to be restrained entirely, but no one could complain of their singing "Soldiers of the Queen" when Lieut.-Gen. Hunter was presented for a degree, or "For he's a jolly good fellow" on the introduction of the Bishop of Ripon, who had won their hearts at their "gaudeamus." On Tuesday evening, before the formal exercises of the week, the students had a torchlight procession, most of them carried in open wagons or brakes, in motley array, representing men and women of all nations and times. The "gaudeamus" or "smoking concert" on Wednesday evening was also in the students' charge and for them, and a large number of them accompanied the guests and authorities of the University on an all-day excursion down the Clyde and through the Kyles of Bute on Saturday. Seventy-four student delegates were present also from other universities. This expedition on the Clyde afforded an opportunity for familiar, leisurely intercourse such as could have been found in no better way. Those who had been quartered in different parts of the city met conveniently. The day was beautiful, and in general the festival was "very favored" in its weather, in spite of a few showers.

The hospitality of the University authorities was lavish, and seemed extended with particularly generous hand to the Americans. The complicated arrangements for the festival were so perfected that every function moved smoothly and without haste. At first, for a few hours, some of the delegates desired more exact information as to their duties and privileges, but this information came before it was needed. No one in the gathering of distinguished men could have presided with greater calm dignity than the Vice-Chancellor, Dr. Story, whose imposing figure, strong face, and deep voice gave weight to all that he did and said. One of the few regrets which one may feel with regard to the festival is that none of the

foreign delegates could be heard, with the exception of the Count d'Alviella of Brussels and the President of the Institute of France. Of course, however, only a few could be heard, at most, and the choice may have seemed difficult. If the whole body of hosts and guests could have been seen together in the open air, the sight would have been impressive, and would have seemed to bring the function into closer relations with the people of the city, especially if a procession had been possible to the commemoration service in the Cathedral. The only procession was the simple passing from one room to another. But such slight regrets are hidden by the appreciative enjoyment of a gathering and exercises which have formed and strengthened ties between scholars and institutions.

Notes.

Mr. Sidney S. Rider announces, in his *Providence Book Notes*, that he has completed volume one of a history of the Dorr war, or rather "a history of the efforts in this State to form a Constitutional Government," culminating in the Dorr war. Hence the first period treated lies some centuries back—1636-1664; the second will embrace 1665-1790; the third 1790-1843. The exact title is 'The Development of Constitutional Government in Rhode Island,' with a final chapter on Constitutional events from 1843 to 1901. Mr. Rider's first-hand sources on the Dorr war are unsurpassed in importance and extent. Subscriptions are solicited.

Odd for a bookseller's subscription offer is that of Mr. Elliot Stock, 62 Paternoster Row, London, E. C., for facsimiles of the famous Alfred Jewel "in three metals—copper gilt, silver gilt, and gold," at prices ranging from thirteen guineas to one.

Out of the way, too, is Mr. R. H. Russell's portfolio of pictures by F. T. Richards, "The Royal Game of Golf," hand-colored prints of single figures in old-time costume, designed primarily for framing.

The thin volume entitled 'A Century of Caste,' and edited by Judge A. N. Waterman (Chicago: M. A. Donohue & Co.), appears to be a faithful transcript of the reminiscences of an ex-slave who still lingers, near the century mark, to make comparison of the cruelties of slavery in her girlhood and womanhood with those of caste at the South at the present time. Judge Waterman has added the statutes of South Carolina of 1834 penalizing the instruction of slaves, with similar provisions in other States, and (more shameful) the Black Code of Illinois in force "for many years prior thereto and at the beginning of the Civil War," the code under which Lincoln was reared, and from which he never fully revolted. In 1862 a majority of 175,000 voters were in favor of incorporating this code in the State Constitution. Indiana had a similar code up to the close of the rebellion.

In 'Blue Shirt and Khaki,' by James F. J. Archibald (Silver, Burdett & Co.), will be found an interesting and pleasing series of comparative studies of the types of British and American soldiers as the author saw them in Cuba and South Africa. Incidentally the later pages are given to personal experiences in the war with the Boers, but the more important part of the book consists of observations of men of the two

armies under similar conditions of field service, with a sympathetic wish to give to the English soldier his entire dues of efficiency as a fighting force. The British army compares unfavorably with that of the United States in the moral and physical character of its material, and in the ability of the rank and file to carry on belligerent operations by themselves. When the British officer is gone, under the disabilities of battle, the private is helpless and easily persuaded to surrender to an inferior enemy. The English equipments are cumbrous and ill-suited to the comfort and health of the men; but the British supply organization is better than ours. The conservatism which compels the soldier to campaign without shelter-tent or poncho in a country like South Africa, where drenching storms are frequent and protracted, is justly condemned; but the Englishman keeps himself in more presentable form under such disadvantages than do our troops. It is agreeable to read the author's praises of the new luxurious Government transport ships, such as the *Sumner*, in which the author travelled to Port Said; yet, while eulogizing this new order of affairs in the Quartermaster's Department, he seizes an excellent opportunity to urge the wisdom of enlarging transportation facilities for sudden emergencies by granting naturalization to foreign-built ships bought by Americans.

We have, from Edward Arnold of London, Major-Gen. Sir H. E. Colville's account of the operations, in the western portion of the field of the Boer-British war, in the spring of 1900, of the Ninth Division of Field-Marshal Roberts's army, formed when Roberts reorganized the army for the relief of Kimberley; Gen. Colville having previously commanded the Guard Brigade. This military arrangement was of short duration, from February to June, and the brevity of Gen. Colville's command was ascribed by popular sentiment in London, and perhaps in the army, to the dissatisfaction of the General-in-chief with the spirit shown by Colville towards certain minor coöperative movements, two of which especially resulted disastrously to the British forces. These were an ambushcade at Sanna's Post, on the 31st of March, where Gen. Broadwood lost 330 men, seven guns, and a hundred wagons, and a similar misadventure to Col. Spragge's 500 yeomanry who surrendered to De Wet on the 28th of May. Students of our American civil war will recall some notable illustrations of apparent injustice done to highly efficient officers by their superiors in the midst of active campaigns where swift judgments must be made by the responsible commander (the case of Warren removed at Five Forks by Sheridan is a distinguished instance); and that of Gen. Colville may come in this category, although he was not relieved from his command in an abrupt and offensive manner. Gen. Colville tells of the achievements of his men during this short campaign, with a moderate and restrained temper, the evident object of publication being to enable the writer to set forth his view of the facts, and thus to appeal to the enlightened judgment of his countrymen when a military court of inquiry was undesirable.

'Poole's Historical Atlas of Modern Europe' (H. Frowde) has reached part xxvii, the later numbers appearing with provoking slowness as the end approaches. The maps contained in the present part are: Europe at the Accession of the Emperor Charles V., 1519, by Mr. C. W. Oman; England and Wales, showing the Parliamen-

tary Representation of England and Wales according to the Reform Act of 1832, by the editor; and Italy c. 1060-1167, by Miss Lina Eckenstein. Of these the second is the only unique map. The letterpress accompanying it contains not only an account of the changes in representation effected by the act of 1832, but also a brief summary of later alterations, the whole forming a most useful piece of work. It is unfortunate that an insufficient color "explanation" accompanies the otherwise satisfactory map of Italy, and none the map of Europe temp. Charles V.

The underlying thought in the boy's question, Which was the largest island before Australia was discovered? might apply to appendicitis. That particular affection doubtless has always held the same relation to human health that it does now, notwithstanding it has so recently been inscribed upon the nosological atlas. Those who make light of the modern surgeon because he so frequently finds this newly-named disease and eradicates it, are apt to confuse its discovery with its existence. They forget that, simultaneously with its recognition in our homes, has been the disappearance of the older and grave inflammation of the bowels, which, when sufficiently advanced to be identified, was nearly always fatal. They overlook the accuracy of diagnosis which permits this identification, and especially neglect the wonderful extent to which asepsis makes practicable the impossibilities of the last generation. Dr. C. B. Lockwood's 'Appendicitis, its Pathology and Surgery' (Macmillan), might almost be designated "The Philosophy of Appendicitis." It is comprehensive but not diffuse, technical but not abstruse, as becomes a thoughtful book which at every step represents experience and reflection. The difficulties and possible errors in diagnosis are well illustrated, for often it is quite as important to know what to avoid as what to do. The last line of p. 195 contains a most amusing typographical error in "gurgling and bauba rigma." "Bauba rigma" may well seem a recondite expression, intelligible only to the inner circle, until one imagines that the author dictated to a stenographer, who reproduced the approximate sound of the unaccustomed syllables which compose "borborygmi."

The host of seekers after the missing genealogical link between the mother country and the United States should keep an eye on Mr. J. Henry Lea's "Genealogical Gleanings from the English Archives" in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* (Boston). The instalment in the current July issue opens up the promising Bristol archives—completely, so far as record of apprentices to New England goes, for volumes 6-11. Among these are two apprentices in 1670 to John Alden, and it is suggested that this most prolific of the Mayflower ancestors may be found to have originated in the west of England. Other interesting trails are struck in the case of historic names.

La Revue criticises the *New York Bookman* for its "amusing lapse" in attributing to Jean Coquelin the authorship of the play of "Quo Vadis?" But in its own notice of this magazine it is guilty of an equal blunder, when describing a certain article as dealing with Charlotte Yonge, "the author of 'John Halifax.'"

Mr. Samuel Butler's fantastic work on 'The Authoress of the Odyssey' (London,

1897) serves the veteran philologist, Dr. A. Baumeister, as a starting-point for two articles on the Homeric poems in Nos. 109 and 110 of *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*. It may be imagined that Dr. Baumeister does not share the eccentric English scholar's belief in Nausicaa's authorship of the *Odyssey*; he is nevertheless seriously interested in many of Butler's observations. What renders the articles of especial interest to students of Homer, however, is the theory, advanced by the writer, that the elaboration of the romantic scene in the land of the Phæacians is to be ascribed to a poet whose home was in the Ionian city of Phocæa.

The discoveries of the last century have shown that there was a basis in fact for some of the most remarkable African marvels related by Homer and Herodotus. A Berlin philologist, Dr. Th. Zell, has just enunciated the theory that the Polyphemus of the *Odyssey* is to be identified with the gorilla, whose strength and size are in harmony with the Homeric description. He interprets the name as indicating the terrible cries uttered by this animal, and lays even greater stress upon the use of the word Cyclops, inasmuch as roundness of the eyes is the physical trait which especially distinguishes the ape from the man. Dr. Zell supports his contention by a quotation from the 'Periplus Hannonis,' showing that Hanno met near Sierra Leone some gorillas which he describes as "savage men."

Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, No. 5, contains a summary of the researches of Dr. J. Hiort in respect to the edible fishes of the North Sea. He treats especially of their migrations, and his observations lead him to the conclusion that they are practically inexhaustible. The geological results, mainly, of a journey in the Kirghiz Steppe on the northern shore of the Caspian, are given by A. F. Stahl.

In the latest issue of the *Archæologisches Jahrbuch*, the brothers, Alfred and Justus Koerte, publish a preliminary report of their archæological finds last season in the ruins of the city Gordieion in northern Phrygia. A leading object was to discover the shrine where Alexander the Great cut the Gordian Knot, and the archæologists are convinced that they have found this in a small temple, 20 metres long and 11 metres wide, of which, however, little but the foundations and roof-tiles have been preserved, these evidently belonging to the Eastern Greek style of structure of the sixth century. No sculpture of any kind was found except a torso of a Siren, in archaic Greek style. Nothing of the old city walls was discovered. The most important find was a series of five burial chambers, about 14 metres in height, which contained an abundance of tile utensils, and some in bronze and iron. The greatest curiosity among these is a sort of kettle with a sieve, which the brothers Koerte consider to have been used as beer vessels. These utensils range from the eighth and seventh century to the later Greek period. The particulars of the work done in Gordieion will be given in a special volume soon to be published.

The Parliamentary paper on Slavery in Zanzibar is an answer to the charges frequently made that the emancipation decree is practically a dead letter through the lukewarmness of the British officials. By this decree, issued April 6, 1897, the legal status of slavery was abolished, and any slave could obtain his freedom on applica-

tion. In the first twenty months some six thousand out of a slave population of 100,000, availed themselves of the privilege, but in the last two years only 3,757 and 1,685, respectively—making in all about twelve thousand freedmen. It should be said that the recent epidemic of smallpox, in which twenty thousand perished, has seriously checked the progress of emancipation. This slow working of the decree is accounted for by the unwillingness of the slaves to exchange the comforts and freedom from responsibility of a condition of servitude for the risks and hardships, and especially the social ostracism, to which the freedman is inevitably exposed. The picture drawn of slave life, in which only fifteen hours a week of work is required for the possession of a house and land and care in sickness, reminds one of the pro-slavery arguments urged in this country a half-century ago. It is doubtless a true picture, now in Zanzibar and Pemba as then in South Carolina, of the condition of slaves who are so fortunate as to have good masters, but its dark side is not shown. The assertion is made that the decree has been beneficial in elevating the character of the slaves through the knowledge of their right to be free, and in encouraging a spirit of enterprise among the Arab planters, who now take a close personal interest in their plantations instead of leaving all to their overseers. The Government is also giving efficient aid to the emancipation movement by educating the freed population in industrial schools.

An interesting summary of the report of the customs committee of the lower house on the proposed tariff on corn in France is given in the Consular Reports for June. It contains a résumé of the arguments for an increase by the agricultural societies, the distillers of beet-root, etc., and those against by the representatives of the industries using corn, transportation companies, and seventeen chambers of commerce. There is also an account of the agricultural societies or farmers' syndicates whose object is the promotion of agriculture by giving instruction through lectures and libraries, buying and renting the best implements, and securing markets for the sale of products. The societies number 2,067, with a membership of half a million, including all classes, from the nobles and wealthy land-owners to the farm-laborers. It is believed that their influence will be felt in checking the growth of socialism, and in fixing the rural population to the soil by dignifying farm labor and increasing its profits.

—The multiplication of cyclopædias and compendiums of home biography must be accounted for by diverse tastes and viewpoints among those who read, and by the importance attached to books of reference by those who purchase, whether they read or not. 'Lamb's Biographical Dictionary of the United States' (Boston: James H. Lamb Co.) nearly reaches the middle of H in its third volume, and thus bids fair to be completed in three, or at most four, more large volumes. Its appearance is good and even impressive; the writing is correct and businesslike, the proof-reading careful, the illustrations numerous; precedents have been followed, but not slavishly. A work of these pretensions of course challenges comparison with 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography,' which has long been standard

in this field. Lamb's volumes (at least in the 'University Edition') are somewhat bigger and heavier; the type is larger and less closely set, the margins are wider; but the size of column is about the same, and the number of pages and of lines to the page somewhat less. As to the matter, Lamb makes a nearer approach to democratic equality; Presidents and the like are handled less extensively, men and women of minor fame more liberally; very brief notices are few. Families are not grouped as in Appleton, though sometimes a son or other relative, not deemed equal to a separate title, gets a few lines under the paternal caption. As to number of names, take 'Adams' as a test case: each book has forty-two of these, but only thirty-one are the same in both; according to Lamb, eleven former worthies have lapsed from national remembrance, and as many new ones risen to take their places. Judging by this, the number of persons here celebrated must be nearly the same as in Appleton's original six volumes, but almost a quarter of them have come to the front within the last fifteen years. The Canadians, Mexicans, South Americans, etc., who made a percentage of Appleton's subjects are here disregarded, and with them go a good many ex-celebrities of our own land whose fame may be supposed to be shelf-worn. Parents and ancestors are named as far as may be.

—The publishers, or their editor, Mr. John Howard Brown, profess a definite plan, and they seem to have carried it out. A casual survey detects no painful marks of haste, looseness, or incongruity. True, the minor notices of doubtful survivals are not always accurate; but that is the rule, not the exception. In such matters one book of reference usually copies from another—not the words, if its editor's eyes are open, but the alleged facts. What if a man was born or died in February, and the types say the previous December? The chances are that few will know and nobody will care. Even when an exceptionally strenuous conscience goes to the sources of information, it often turns out that doctors differ and certainty is unattainable. What if a man scored with one novel and failed with others? Say that all his books were very popular; it is kinder. What if he won a single battle, and was drunk and incapable at the next? *De mortuis*; if he was not too publicly exposed, let the charitable tradition stand that he was uniformly vigilant and heroic. Herein this Dictionary may be better than its predecessors, being young and yet to bear the test of time and use. But these large works are the joint product of many workmen, not always highly selected or highly paid; to detect every error, the editor should be omniscient; and it is well when the dry-as-dust critic, moping over some unimportant notice put in for form's sake, does not convict its weary writer of dozing at his work and repeating what he had said ten lines above. But Mr. Brown and his contributors seem to have kept awake: they admit little for form's sake, and aim to deal solely with living reputations and largely with living persons. Their business is with facts, not with opinions; and if the salt of criticism be lacking, there is at least plain and free speech, as when we are told that Bret Harte's first story was denounced by the *Overland* printer as "irreligious and improper," that Julian Hawthorne at Harvard "was better known in athletics than in the

classroom," and that his father's writings for some time "kept the wolf from the door, but gave no feasts." If one could sometimes wish for more of these enlivening personalities and less of leisurely and trivial detail, it is yet probably true that most people read a book of reference for facts, and not to see how well the writers can write. Those who like to get at the soul of men and things can find this done—on some European subjects—in Chambers and the Britannica; and such as prefer everyday facts "plain" and unclogged by explanations, will be disturbed by no vain philosophizing here.

—Volume iii. of the 'Letters to Washington' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) continues the series from 1758 to 1770. At the opening, Washington is serving with Bouquet in the slow advance upon Fort Du Quesne, an advance due more to the remembrance of Braddock's mishap than to the real difficulties of taking the fort. The Virginian, whose advice as to road had been set aside, chafed under the delay, and called out from his correspondents echoes of his own freely expressed dissatisfaction. It was on the whole a dreary record of camp minutiae, of contests with the wagoners, and differences with the commissaries. Even Bouquet wrote, after receiving some cattle for the army: "They are extremely bad, and I hope we shall have no more such cattle from the contractors." The Virginia Assembly, in a spasm of economy, voted to recall the regiment commanded by Washington—a measure which would have prevented it from sharing in the honor of taking Fort Du Quesne. Fortunately, the Governor persuaded the Assembly to suspend the resolution, and the occupation of the fort made further action unnecessary. Washington now determined to withdraw from the army, and tasted the sweets of deserved praise. "The fear of losing you," wrote Stewart, "has struck a general Grief and Dejection in both officers and Soldiers." An "humble address" from the officers of the Virginia regiment is full proof of the high estimation in which he was held, and is something more than a formal utterance of laudation. It has the note of sincerity to the full.

—His marriage followed, and he at once went to Mount Vernon, where he led the life of a planter until the first Continental Congress was called. As a member of the House of Burgesses, he was naturally made the spokesman for the colonial regiments still in service, and their wants were first laid before him to enlist his activity in behalf of favorable action. At the same time he became interested in the Western lands offered as a reward for colonial service—an interest which endured to the end of his life. His ward, young Custis, also required some attention, and was put in the charge of Jonathan Boucher. With these many cares and occupations he was much engrossed, and the entries from his ledger which Mr. Hamilton gives are evidence of his minute attention to all concerns. We wish it were possible to find some improvement in the editing of the letters. The editor still permits himself to strain after inexplicable effects. Robert Stewart was not an illiterate man, and could not be placed in the same class with the overseer Hardwick. No less than forty-two letters from Stewart are contained in this volume, offering a ready test of his ability to spell,

Why he should be made to write "cas" and "purchass" is not easily understood. A hasty ending of a word is capable of a proper interpretation. So Hardwick, who is certainly an extraordinary writer, is made to say "mulch" where "mutch" is clearly intended; and "very elley spare," an unintelligible phrase until the long form of *s* is recalled, when a variant of *easily* suggests itself. The "4 Oyr" on p. 170 surely should be "4 Ofr." Errors like these cast much doubt on the accuracy of the text.

—Margaretha von Poschinger's three-volume biography of 'Kaiser Friedrich,' published in 1898-1900, is condensed by Sidney Whitman into a single English volume, 'Life of the Emperor Frederick' (Harper & Brothers). The work is based on the sources and is refreshingly free from sensationalism. It ignores or destroys all the unhistorical legends that have grown up about the hero's person. No attempt is made to arrogate to him the credit of establishing the German Empire. Nothing is left of the alleged critical differences of opinion between him and his Chancellor during his brief reign, nor of the rumors of intrigues concerning the treatment of his last illness. There was no plot between the German physicians and the Conservatives to exclude the dying Frederick from the throne; there was no determination on the part of his wife to seat him on the throne, even at the cost of his life, by securing a false diagnosis from an English expert. For Frederick nothing more is claimed than is fairly his—a life of dignity and mainly subordinate usefulness, with an occasional intervention of prime importance, as when he supported the policy of granting moderate terms to Austria and the South German States, in 1866 (pp. 280, 281), and when he agitated for the imperial title in 1870 (pp. 339-341). As regards the reconciliation between the Crown and the Prussian Liberals in 1866, it has long been known that his rôle was a passive one (pp. 281, 282), and that Bismarck carried his point against the Prussian Conservatives and obtained the King's authority to ask for a bill of indemnity simply by utilizing Frederick's known tendencies (pp. 298, 299). Finally, Frederick's support of the alliance with Austria in 1879, which has been described as decisive in securing his father's reluctant assent, is now stated (p. 418) to have been without influence. William ratified the treaty only because Bismarck threatened to resign if his policy were not accepted, and because the old Emperor "was averse to ministerial changes." Mr. Whitman tells us, in his introduction, that it has been his aim to select, from the German biography, "such portions as seemed most likely to interest English readers." "English" is here used in a national rather than a linguistic sense, as is shown by the disproportionate space which Mr. Whitman allots to Frederick's British courtship and marriage, and to the relations between Frederick's household and the British Court. In other respects, the condensation will be found acceptable to American readers; and the translation is exceptionally good. The index should be fuller; for purposes of reference it is far from sufficient.

—"The Political Obstacles to Missionary Success in China," is the title of a lecture delivered in Hong Kong by Mr. Alexander Michie on April 16, 1901, and now reprinted in a pamphlet of twenty-five pages. The author has lived more than thirty years

in China, and written two well-known books. Small as it is, the lecture is a real contribution to our knowledge of the underlying causes of the chronic troubles in China which may be rightly credited to missionary activity. With calm mastery of the whole subject, Mr. Michie shows that "what the Chinese object to in foreign missions and will resist to the death is their political pretensions," which includes the sphere of social relations. In China, the most important politics are those of the family and the village. If missionaries can live on good terms with the local communes and keep clear of the tribal feuds, the higher Chinese authorities will be only too glad to leave them unmolested. Notorious as is the open defiance of the Roman Catholic missionaries, who claim official rank and interfere directly in the administration of justice, the Protestant missionary, with more subtle but equally real opposition to Chinese judicial methods, is often unwarily led to compromise himself in disreputable transactions. The Chinaman who to native cunning adds the benefit of foreign instruction, "is several degrees 'cuter' than his heathen brother." When it is considered that the whole system of inland missions for the last forty years has been carried on under the ægis of a clause smuggled into the Chinese text of the French treaty, in 1860, at a time when China dared not face another war with Great Britain and France, one not only can see the essential dishonesty of the whole proceeding, but need not wonder at the constant missionary troubles, with their attendant crimes and outrages, during the past thirty-five years. In a word, Great Britain and the United States opened the door to their countrymen to overrun China, without taking adequate steps to control their operations. When, in 1871, an attempt was made by the Chinese Government to supply the want of a missionary concordat, not final, but inviting discussion, the Governments of Great Britain and the United States declined to notice the proposal, on the pretext that it referred to the Roman Catholic propaganda, because, forsooth, it had been first addressed to the French Government. Thus placing themselves in the wrong, these Protestant Powers incurred much of the responsibility for the outbreaks of the past thirty years. The author undoubtedly expresses the sentiment of the thoughtful, not only in China but at home, in urging that the two great non-aggressive nations using the same language should put a bridle on missionaries, and prohibit them from meddling in Chinese politics in any manner whatsoever.

BLASHFIELD'S ITALIAN CITIES.

Italian Cities. By Edwin Howland Blashfield and Evangeline Willbour Blashfield. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

Books about Italy are like books on religious subjects, in that success is made easy for them; they often have a longevity and give a pecuniary return quite out of proportion to their merits. The bookshops of the Via Tornabuoni and of the Piazza di Spagna present the same familiar titles year after year, good, bad, and indifferent together, and generations of eager tourists carry them away to refresh their memories of the enchanted land in their distant homes. The spell is an enduring one. A quarter of a

century ago, young ladies used to buy Hawthorne's 'Marble Faun' in Rome (and heaven knows what likeness there is between that and the Rome that they saw), and, having carefully interleaved it with as many illustrative photographs as they could find, have it bound as a future aid to memory. In Florence they used 'Romola' in the same way. And these volumes are to-day still precious to their owners.

The volumes before us would furnish an even better occasion for interleaving. 'Romola' can, after all, dispense with it; the stimulated imagination may reproduce its scenes better than does the Alinari picture. But our present authors treat critically of works of art, of line, grouping, perspective, chiaroscuro, and the like, and often the photograph is necessary if we would appreciate the exact value of what they are saying. And such a collection as they would require! The mosaics of Ravenna, with something of its antique sculpture, the Pinturicchio's and Sodomas of Siena, of the Borgia rooms in the Vatican, of Monte Oliveto, the Correggios of Parma, the Peruginos, the Porta Augusta, the general picturesqueness of Perugia, the Giotto's and Cimabue's of Assisi, the frescoes of Raphael at Rome, the Mantegnas at Mantua, with many of those that have been carried from there elsewhere—these are but a part of what the collection would comprise. We hasten to add that the authors' commentary would quite compensate the collector for all his trouble. They would illustrate his illustrations. This is as much as to say that 'Italian Cities' must be counted among the better books of its class. We hesitate to use superlatives, and none the less, running over in our mind recent books about Italy, we can recall none so good. Although it treats of a relatively small number of cities, it may be warmly recommended to the traveller who carries his Burckhardt with him and carefully reads his Symonds and Berenson.

Open the volumes anywhere and begin reading; you at once "catch on," and are carried easily along. Our authors have a pleasant way of putting things. We just now mentioned Symonds, whose name is more than once found in these pages. Probably it is on account of a similar width of culture combined with a certain kinship of temperament, rather than as a result of imitation, that the style reminds one frequently of the historian of the Renaissance. Sometimes, though rarely, in the cadence of the sentences, in the imagery and choice of words, it recalls Symonds in his gorgeousness, but in general it is the Italian 'Sketches' with a new value. The judgments of art, to our mind, are superior to those of Symonds, who, with all his knowledge, talks of painting as a literary man and makes the artist chafe; while Mr. Blashfield himself wields the brush, and, whether you agree with him or not, not only has a right to his say, but commands a respectful hearing. Certain turns of expression with a distinctly antique flavor puzzled us until we recalled that our authors have also published a translation of Giorgio Vasari. Familiarity with Vasari crops out frequently in their pages, chiefly in rectification of mistakes he has made with regard to the artists under treatment. In matter as in manner these volumes have profited by him, but with discretion and never unduly.

It must be owned that the chapters are of

unequal value. One, that recounting a visit to Cortona, does not rise above the level of an agreeable magazine article, which, perhaps, it originally was. The same may be reluctantly said of all the papers relating to Florence, though they are on a higher plane and contain much that one is glad to read. But all that about the preparation and versatility of the Florentine artist has been told us over and over again by a hundred writers from Ruskin and Taine onward, though none, it may be, has done it more pleasantly. Even in the chapters devoted to Siena, there are two, those consecrated to Pinturicchio and to Sodoma, which are head and shoulders above the rest. In the description of the town and in the passages from its history—all delightful reading and often vivid and forcible—it is chiefly the manner that is new. In the account of the two artists named, the matter also is fresh and of first-hand value. The same may be said of the chapters about Correggio, Perugino, Giotto, Raphael, Mantegna, and the mosaics of Ravenna. In all these the authors are not merely clever, cultivated, and agreeable writers, but are critics of art who are of its guild, and who have qualities that are very rare among their companions uniting these two attributes. They do not indulge in vague general statements, they are not always quite one side from the intelligence of the lay reader, but they give whys and wherefores, they go into detail, and are full, clear, forcible, and convincing. Their style even is at its best in those chapters where they are writing of what is nearest to their hearts and daily interests. And in the midst of their warmest praise there are little flashes of impartiality that are delightful, at times even diverting. As a sample, the final sentences about the gallery of Perugia, where its wearisomeness is handsomely recognized, or the ups and downs of the balance in weighing the merits of Perugino himself, with the final result, however, that both his character as a man and his rank as a painter are established upon a better and firmer basis than much of recent criticism has granted to either.

To our mind, one of the great qualities of this work is its absence of *parti pris* and faddism. It speaks quite as simply and honestly of what one doesn't admire in Botticelli as of what one does, and justice to the primitives does not make it unjust even to Giulio Romano. This will not seem small praise when one recalls how much inquisitorial zeal, the zeal that burns and bans, has gone to contemporary admiration for the quattrocento; in fact, we own that it is because we ourselves have *to cry peccavi* that we recognize how high a virtue is our authors' even-handedness. They show, too, how some of the characteristics of Giotto, which Ruskin and others most laud as consummate art, were really limitations, and yet that these very limitations are part of the reason why his decorations of the lower church at Assisi are among the most admirable that Europe has to show. Rectification of Ruskin and his followers is not exactly new, but it is not yet banal; and the temperate, comprehensive criticism that assigns to Giotto what we believe to be his true place in art, and seeks conscientiously to do this with every painter treated, must always be a rare thing. In the chapter about Parma, the judgments of both Burckhardt and Symonds, relative to Correggio are cited, and we were curious enough to read

the passages indicated of those authors, with the resulting conviction that the Blashfield judgment is worth more to the traveller of to-day than either of the others. An unusual breadth of sympathy, an unusual freedom from bias, an unusual sense of justice, are indeed an admirable equipment for a critic, if in addition he be well furnished with modern knowledge, and have opportunity to see and patience to investigate. We are sure that an intelligent tourist visiting Ravenna, Siena, Parma, Perugia, Assisi, Rome, or Mantua, cannot have a pleasanter or more trustworthy artistic companion than these two volumes will furnish. We heartily wish they may have their place in those shops of the Via Tornabuoni and the Piazza di Spagna already mentioned, whence they will find their way into the hands of the judicious for many a long year to come.

It is to be regretted that the proofreading has been so imperfectly done. Each of these handsome volumes is disfigured by a slip of errata that might easily have been increased. Just for the sake of example, Niccolò Pisano (p. 134), Filippi Strozzi (p. 226), Guibbileo (p. 240), might be added to that of the first volume. We mention but one in the second because tubes for cubes (p. 135) might prove puzzling. Then there are actual sins of commission. The authors perhaps follow lights of their own when they write (p. 261, vol. ii., and elsewhere) Santa Maria alle Grazie, instead of *delle Grazie*, as the rest of the world uses; but what can they mean when they talk of "the Gonzaghe," "the Montefelti," "the Farnesi," "Giotti," "Ghirlandaji," and so on? In one place is written Giotto, in accordance with the ordinary English mode of making a plural to Continental names. It may be that to escape such dissonances as "Farneses" they have applied to proper names the plural forms of Italian common nouns; but as Italians never do that, we have here plurals that are neither English nor Italian. Still, all these are but "beauty spots." We will bear with them and yet others, if our authors will give us another series of 'Italian Cities.' We will even venture to recommend for their treatment Padua, Vicenza, Verona, Brescia, Bergamo, Pavia, and whatever aspects may be to them sympathetic of Venice and Milan, in default of a whole volume for each.

By way of postscript: We had nearly forgotten to call attention to one of the rarest qualities of this work as criticism of art, and that is its perfect urbanity. There is not a shadow of contempt for those who are not blessed with the light that illumines its authors. This praise is so singular that we leave it without further comment.

MORE NOVELS.

The Supreme Crime. By Dorothea Gerard. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1901.

Trevern: A Tale of the Thirties. By R. M. Thomas. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Mononia: A Love Story of '48. By Justin McCarthy. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

Valencia's Garden. By Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The God of his Fathers, and Other Stories. By Jack London. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Madame de Longgarde (Dorothea Gerard) has chosen an unusual theme and setting for her fine romance. The Ruthenian Slavs of Eastern Austria have in their dialect, manner of life, and religious observances, so

many points of difference from the Russians that her volume cannot be classed among the "Russian" books of which the press is so prolific at the present time. Potapenko has described, in one of the best among his well-known stories of life among the priestly caste in Little Russia (next-door neighbors to Mme. de Longgarde's Ruthenians), how the ardent young priest, inflamed with divine enthusiasm for his holy calling, wrecks his own domestic happiness and drives from him his young wife and his child. Throughout, the sympathies of the reader are enlisted on his side, because his efforts are so obviously directed to the annihilation of the crying abuses, bad old customs, and mercenary calculations which rule the priests and their lives in country parts. But the case is, though parallel, entirely different with Father Gregor, the hero of 'The Supreme Crime.' He, too, is fired with the desire to be a more worthy priest than the ecclesiastics whom he sees about him; but our sympathies are with his unfortunate wife rather than with him. Yet so artistically is the plot managed that the reverse is the case until the end approaches. By delicate revealing touches, his character is vividly portrayed—the character of an unconscious yet pitiless worshipper of his own spiritual perfection, over other men's imperfections. Faith and hope he has; the greatest of all—charity—he lacks, and that towards his own noble, devoted wife unjustly suspected of murder, and too proudly innocent to justify herself (even were that possible) even to him until fairly forced to do so. The Epilogue sets forth how this over-righteous yet thoroughly well-meaning priest was brought to a consciousness of his own crime after he had brought his wife to despair. With exquisite simplicity, realism, and clearness, the writer sets the whole picture before our eyes; and it is difficult to say which side of the whole merits the most praise, the descriptions of landscape, customs, personal appearance, or character, so perfect is every detail.

On one point the reader requires a little warning. The writer briefly explains that the church of which Father Gregor is a priest belongs to the branch of the Eastern Rite which acknowledges allegiance to the Pope of Rome, yet one who is not somewhat well acquainted with that "Uniate" Church is likely to infer that the ways and customs described are identical with those which prevail in the genuine Russian Church. But, during the three hundred years of this mongrel church's existence (it is called "Greek-Catholic" by its members, who emigrate in thousands to New York and Pennsylvania, and are now returning by the thousand to their original allegiance), it has undergone great changes. Although the untrammelled exercise of their orthodox ritual, vernacular, and beliefs was guaranteed to the people who accepted this compromise (in the alleged cause of unity), and to their descendants, pressure has gradually been brought to bear upon the "Uniates," until their customs (with the exception of the married priesthood) and their creed are practically identical with those of Rome at the present day—even to the extent of accepting the papal dogmas of yesterday touching the Immaculate Conception and the Infallibility of the Pope. Therefore, let this fine story be read for pleasure, and for its remarkable workmanship; but let no student of Russian

affairs draw any conclusions whatever as to the Russian Church—with the sole exception that, in that case as in this, priests must be married before ordination, and cannot remarry; with the added clause for the Russian Church, that a parish priest has no option whatever in the matter, and is compelled to marry.

The motto of Mr. Thomas's book may be said to be the party cry, "Gallant little Wales!" While the hero is escorting the heroine, whom he meets for the first time on a dark night riding a lame horse and many miles from home, he improves the occasion by eulogizing the Welsh character. The various incidents—a duel, a day's shooting, a hunt, a parliamentary election, perils by sea and perils by land—puzzle the reader by their lack of coherence and of connection with the plot, until they are understood to be merely variations on one main theme, the beauty of Welsh scenery. In short, the plot is both subsidiary and inferior to the descriptions, and the characters have little originality. The lively grass widow with a good heart is no new type, and the muscular hero might have come straight from Kingsley's novels. As to local color of the period, there is practically none after the first chapter, and the dialogues are strangely unlike those given in better-known pictures of the "Thirties." Allusions to "new gas lanterns" and disquisitions on the Reform Bill do not of themselves carry us back into the past, and if the incidents related could have happened at all, which may perhaps be doubted, they could just as well have happened in the nineties.

If local color is lacking in "Trewern," in "Mononia" there is enough, and, from the point of view of the ordinary novel reader, to spare. Regarded purely as a "love story" it will never rank very high. As a picture of stirring past times, drawn by the practised hand of a historian and of a patriotic contemporary, who began his journalistic career by reporting the Clonmel trial of the "Young Ireland" conspirators, it cannot fail to be deeply interesting. The vivid pages of Sir Charles Gavan Duffy may help the non-Hibernian reader to enjoy this book, for the hero is clearly suggested by Thomas Francis Meagher, with perhaps a dash of John Mitchel; and Mr. Desmond, the father of the heroine, seems to be a travesty of William Smith O'Brien. We may possibly skip the love scenes, with their somewhat stilted prolixity, but we shall read with care every word about "Young Ireland" and the politics of the day. To describe an election seems a great temptation to novelists. Since the immortal scene in Pickwick, we have had the subject recently handled by Mrs. Ward, Anthony Hope, George Meredith, and now by one who has been both novelist and historian. Even the stiffness of the lovemaking is convincingly old-fashioned, and the author's polished sentences of description, narrative, or quiet satire seem in perfect harmony with the days of elaborate courtesy which he describes. When Mr. Desmond, an admirable type of a self-important spendthrift, posing even to himself, dies to the sound of a dog's wailing, and takes it for a Banshee, what could be neater than the phrase which tells of his "smile of grateful acknowledgment for the recognition given to the ancestral claims of the House of Desmond"? Altogether, there is an unusual and very pleasing flavor about the book, all the more

because it deals, as the author remarks, with a class hitherto ignored in Irish fiction, "middle-class personages belonging generally to the professional orders." It is devoid alike of the rollicking fun of Lever and the pathos of Miss Lawless and Jane Barlow; and the impression it leaves is distinctly individual. In a more general way, it may also excite in the reader's mind the wonder whether, with all our boasted modern culture, the old days when men of all ages quoted Horace and Homer and spoke in debating societies, were not after all more polished and, even in their political upheavals, more decorous than our own.

In "Valencia's Garden" we have an old-fashioned melodrama. We find all the regular stock characters. The almost painfully ingenuous heroine, this time with uneven teeth and a cast in her eye; her old and unappreciative husband; the high-minded hero, who virtuously restrains her bursts of expansiveness towards himself; the deep-eyed villain with his plots and his drugs; the elderly adventuress, who goes beyond even the villain in her impotent malice and finally murders the wrong person; the ancient family retainer; and the *enfant terrible*. What more could be wished, even in a dime novel? The brewer's son behaves in an unseemly manner, directly traceable to his father's profession, and is told by the hero that it will take his family "ten generations" to attain gentlemanlike feelings. The heroine talks with surprising frankness of and to her "husband's loveress," and the husband is portrayed as a fit object of pity, enslaved as he is to these two women at once. It cannot be said that the characters are very lifelike, but then neither are the dialogues, which are French literally translated. The sentence "My heart! the sugar; that makes the fat," occurs on page 3, and is typical of the whole book. Probably the reader's first feeling of affection for any character will be called forth by the kind *deus ex machina* of the last chapter, the magpie who has stolen the heroine's necklace, but has had the thoughtfulness, on changing his abode, to leave it behind for discovery.

The friends of Scruff Mackenzie and of Malemute Kid will welcome "The God of his Fathers." Probably all writers of the short story laid in distant lands fervently wish that Kipling had not, as was said of Shakespeare, "had the idea first." It is inevitable that the "Plain Tales" should unconsciously exist in our minds as a bed of Procrustes on which to measure all similar attempts; and this is obviously unfair. Jack London has, however, unusually little to fear from the comparison. His eleven stories in this volume are vivid, concise, and dramatic. If they are sometimes coarse, generally disagreeable, and always cynical and reckless, this is nothing peculiar to him. The only missionary brought on the scene is—unlike Father Roubeau, in "The Son of the Wolf"—a coward and a renegade; but is not the poor missionary always fair game? The unsophisticated reader may wince at the calmness with which the institution of "Northland wives" is treated, but at least it is no worse than a "Burmese marriage." Jack London has one great advantage over his Anglo-Indian prototype: in describing his favorite Yukon country, he deals with a state of things less known to the civilized world. If Kipling has made us feel the horrors of heat, this writer fully impresses up-

on us the cruelty of cold. Whether the stories are humorous, blood-curdling, or pathetic—and it may be noted that the best in the book, "Grit of Women," belongs to the third class—they have a wild, elemental savagery which is positively thrilling. A certain amount of tall talk, especially "spread-eagleism," might profitably be omitted, and the tone of the whole will jar on many readers. But if any one wants to be interested, amused, and thoroughly stirred, he cannot do better than read this volume.

THE LAND OF THE MOORS.

The Land of the Moors: A Comprehensive Description. By Budgett Meakin. With 33 illustrations and a map. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1901. Pp. xxxii, 464.

It must be confessed that this second volume of Mr. Meakin's Mauretanian thesaurus is a disappointment. The weaknesses of the first volume recur more emphatically, and their nakedness is not covered out of sight by the same veiling excellences. The wild system of transliteration to which, with slight modification, Mr. Meakin still clings, continues to add a terror to reading. It is often impossible to tell in what degree the vagaries of form here given are due to a misprint, to simple error, or to the perversity of this unhappy system. The basis of all the confusion is that he does not distinguish between written and colloquial Arabic, which, in vocalization especially, often stand miles apart. Thus, he considers that "Arabic is written phonetically," a statement which is closer to the truth than it would be if said of English, but not nearly so true as of French. The fact is, that the writer on the East must follow strictly one of two courses; he must either take the written form and reproduce its signs exactly according to a conventional system based on the Latin alphabet, or he must listen to the word as spoken by natives, and then represent its sounds in a fixed phonetic alphabet. It may be doubted whether Mr. Meakin's ear is sufficiently acute for him to pursue this latter course. At any rate, he has fallen between the two methods, and the reader is often left in doubt as to what precisely is the form intended. Thus, for one or two examples only, *Mahurók*, on page 247, may be *Mahrúk* or *Muharrak*; on the same page *mudún* for *mudun* is strange enough to call for a note of explanation. We have also *Muwahhadi* for *Muwahhid* (*muwahhadi* could mean only 'one who stands in some relation to another of whom unity is asserted'); and *Murábi* for *Murābi*. These are both well-known historical names, and if present-day Morocco has so distorted them, we should be told it distinctly.

Nor does Mr. Meakin seem to be a safer guide in things grammatical. The remark, on page xxiv, that "the final *h* in feminine proper names becomes *t* for euphony when the following word begins with a vowel" throws a flood of light on his methods. His scholarship, in the exact sense, is thus evidently slight. Further, he does not seem to have prepared himself for his task by any considerable reading in Arabic or acquaintance with Muslim literature. He relies upon his own knowledge of the country and upon his own inquiries, joined to a wide study of European books on Morocco. Thus, he has paid comparatively little attention to the Arabic travellers and geographers, ex-

cept when they met him directly, in European translations. Ibn Batūta he knows only in the translation by Samuel Lee of the abstract, and he has not, apparently, heard of the fuller text and translation of Defrémery and Sanguinetti. Of Yāqūt he makes no use, nor of the geographers of the *Bibliotheca*. There are one or two references to al-Bakrī, but of so blind a nature that it is impossible to tell in what form he has been consulted. They may easily be second-hand. Mr. Meakin, throughout, is somewhat too fond of the blind reference. On page 164, for example, we read, "See Mela, Pliny, Polybius, etc." These authors, apart from the "etc.," will certainly stand being looked into a good deal.

In many other ways, a curious ignorance, or at best carelessness, in regard to Muslim law and literature is displayed. For example, on page 244, we are told about the lithographic establishment in connection with the Qarawīnīn mosque. A fuller account of it and a list of the books published there would have been of high interest and value. A European Arabist counts it a prize when he has added one of those lithographs to his library. But all Mr. Meakin does is to add in a footnote that the establishment was taken over by Mulay el-Hasan "to have a work printed called 'Es-Sheikh Mortadā.'" This is a strange way of referring to the famous edition of the *Ithāf as-Sāda*, the commentary by the Sayyid Murtaḍā on the *Ithā* of al-Ghazzālī. Still stranger is the remark which follows, that of the works issued from this press, "those which are unique are of little value." Again, on page 253, we are told of "the preference for white female slaves, which tempts people to sell their children by light-colored slave mothers." Usage in Muslim countries has gone very far in the way of overriding canon law, but it has gone much further in Morocco than elsewhere if the acknowledged child of a free man by a slave can be a slave. Such a child, according to law, and to usage elsewhere, is freeborn. It would be of interest to know how the matter is arranged in Morocco. Mr. Meakin seems not to recognize the difficulty involved. Again, on page 266, there is a description of the tomb of Idris II. in his mosque at Fez, with its gold-embroidered cloth cover and its gold or gilded censers. On that is a note that "Rohlf speaks of this display as contrary to the teachings of the Qur'an." Mr. Meakin does not hazard any comment, but we are left with the impression that he accepts the dictum as of authority. Apparently, he has not read the Qur'an, for it would be hard to find anything in it to this purpose. When the Wahhābites levelled all the tombs they could reach, it was in obedience to certain traditions from Muhammad, but to those traditions the rest of Islam has paid scant attention. Similarly, the law forbidding the use of gold for ornaments and utensils has no basis in the Qur'an, but only in tradition. Rohlf, in this case, is a broken reed.

But we pass from such details, significant as they are, to a description of the book. It divides into three parts. The first, of 84 pages, is an account, good but too brief, of the natural features and products of the country. The second, exceeding 320 pages, is called "political," and is practically a guide-book to the separate towns and districts, under the rubrics Open Ports, Closed Ports, Imperial Cities, Sacred Towns,

Minor Towns, Spanish Possessions, and Morocco beyond the Atlas. A general criticism must be that Baedeker would have done it better, and that it would have been well if Mr. Meakin could have approximated to Baedeker's concise, impersonal style. Through it, generally, is the trail of the amateur. One example will be sufficient. One of the two great mosques in Fez is described, and rightly, as the "mosque of the Qarawīnīn" (Mr. Meakin's form is Karḍeein, one of the most mysterious products of his system), and we are told further that it is so called because the inhabitants of its district were "of Eastern extraction." The connection is not exactly clear, and their extraction becomes evident only when we derive the name from the town Qayrawān. Further, the encyclopædias unanimously name this mosque "of the Karubīn," whatever may be their authority. This, also, is the name which Rohlf gives, who got it on the spot and whom Mr. Meakin elsewhere uses as an authority. An explanation is plainly called for, but none is given here. The facts in the case are as follows. The certainly historical name of the mosque, as given in the Arabic geographers, is "of the Qarawīnīn," i. e., of the people of Qayrawān. To all appearance, a name given to it at the present day is "of the Karūbiyīn," i. e., of the Cherubim. Now one of the principal ornaments of the mosque is an old European bell, four feet in height and twelve in circumference at the rim. It was evidently looted from some Christian church and is used as a kind of chandelier, exactly as were the bells of Compostela in the mosque at Cordova. On it are four devices in bas-relief, an eagle, a lion, a bull, and an obscure figure. Mr. Meakin, page 270, conjectures it is of a man, and is reminded of the emblems of the four evangelists. Did the devices suggest to the Muslims the four Cherubim who are the bearers of the throne of God, and to whom they, following Ezekiel, apparently, give these forms? Did the mosque thence gain its popular name? The conjecture is possible; but the describer of this, the most sacred mosque in Morocco, and the principal building in one of its principal cities, should not have left us to hunt explanations in the dark.

The third part, of 42 pages, describes travelling in Morocco, and, especially, the experiments and experiences of the author in his wanderings. The book as a whole leaves a confused impression upon the mind. It is undoubtedly our fullest account of Morocco, and is crammed with information, much of it, however, of a dubious kind. If Mr. Meakin pays any attention to his critics—he does not seem to have done so with our review of his first volume—we would entreat him most vehemently, for the sake of his third (on the manners and customs of the Moors), to put himself to school with the 'Ulamā of Fez, or of any other Muslim university—that of Fez has an excellent reputation—to acquire some outline, at least, of Muslim theology and jurisprudence, and then to take Lane's 'Modern Egyptians' for his model in writing. Let him remember that the root of Lane's success lay not simply in his forte of description, but in the severe studies which he put himself through at Cairo. The describer of Cairene life was accepted by the 'Ulamā there as their fellow. *Was-salam*.

Orestes A. Brownson's Latter Life, from 1856 to 1876. By Henry F. Brownson. Detroit, Mich.: The Author. 1900.

A loosely printed volume of 629 pages brings to a close Mr. Brownson's filial labors in behalf of his father's memory and fame. It is quite as interesting as either of the two preceding volumes, the second of which recited the elder Brownson's experience during the first dozen years of his connection with the Roman Catholic Church. Nothing if not controversial, it was only a question upon what persons and opinions he should wreak his controversial zeal. In his ante-Catholic period the orthodox and their opinions gave him his opportunity; in its later phases the liberals and other Protestants from whom he was gradually receding. Having become a Romanist, without losing the old objects of attack, he found that others were immediately developed. The Catholics were not Catholic enough for him—that is to say, un-Catholic. They were not severe enough in the construction of their own doctrines and principles. His conversion was nearly simultaneous with Newman's, whose 'Development of Christianity' was the bridge by which he carried himself over from the Anglican to the Roman side. A most unsafe bridge, thought Brownson. It would never do to confess that there was any development of the true faith. The early Church must have had the *plenum* of all truth, and that explicitly.

In 1855 Brownson removed to New York, and his removal coincided with a remarkable change in his habit of thought and the direction of his controversial activities. In Boston he was at first content to defend "Catholicity" by external authority, believing with Manning that "a man who attempts to find reasons for his faith is on the high road to infidelity." But the fact is, the stuff for a good Romanist was not in him. He was born to be a free lance, and was unhappy when obliged to hold his lance at rest. In New York he found himself in growing sympathy with the Paulist Fathers, especially with Fathers Hewit and Hecker, while his relations with Archbishop Hughes were often strained, with now and then a rupture of the most serious kind. Twice, at least, Hughes publicly berated him, once when he had given an oration at Fordham; and, all the Jesuits and other clericals followed the Archbishop to the banquet hall, leaving poor Brownson, solitary and dinnerless, to wait for the train that would take him back to the city. About as much "indefinite heterogeneity" is revealed in American Catholicism as in English by Mr. Purcell's life of Cardinal Manning. Hughes is impeached of various indirections and untruths. To alleviate the stress of his opposition, Brownson betook himself to Elizabeth, N. J., where a more friendly bishop had jurisdiction over him. But change of residence brought only partial relief. Complaints were made of him at Rome, but he had friends as well as enemies, and he escaped the heavy hand of ecclesiastical condemnation. He was always ready to make amends for his intellectual aberrations. "It will cost me nothing," he wrote, "to retract any error authority may point out in my writings." "If the Holy See finds aught in what I have written to mark with a note of censure, or that she requires me to retract, I do not think it will cost me a moment's struggle to obey her, and to accept

her decision *ex animo*." But he would straightway have offended again. He thought himself a submissive servant of authority, and he was an irrepressible individualist—nothing being changeless in his opinions but their perpetual change.

There is little emphasis upon his relation to the dogma of infallibility, but it is certain that he inclined to Newman's minimizing interpretation of the dogma rather than to the maximizing interpretation of Manning and W. G. Ward. He was no stickler for the temporal power of the papacy, believing that in that respect the Pope would do well to pass a self-denying ordinance. He anticipated those American constructions of Catholicism which the present Pope has condemned in Archbishop Ireland's utterances and in the writings of Father Hecker, though, while softening his reproval of Newman's 'Developmentism,' he did not go so far as Hecker on this line.

He was an ardent politician, and as individualist here as in his theological opinions. From hating not only the abolitionists, but all anti-slavery men, and voting for Buchanan, he veered round to the Republican side, voted for Lincoln in 1860, and found him in 1863 "the present *encumbrance*," engaging with Sumner in sympathetic correspondence on this head. He accepted Sumner's doctrine of "State-suicide," and was for making Frémont President in 1864. Afflicted with Whewell's foible, he criticised the conduct of generals and plans of campaign as knowingly as if they were "the deep things of God." He wrote with terrible and disconcerting frankness of the disloyalty of the Catholic clergy to the Union cause. He favored the emancipation of the slaves, not as an end but as a means. Serfdom should have succeeded slavery as the freedman's best defence. "Our boasted Anglo-Saxon race has no conscience towards inferior and colored races." Here was "the trumpet of a prophecy."

Forced to give up *Brownson's Review* in 1864, he became a frequent contributor to the *Catholic World*, the organ of the Paulist Fathers and their doctrine of American Catholicism. But Brownson soon found that he had reached his liberal aphelion, and that it was time for him to be getting back to closer quarters with the higher powers. He quarrelled with Hewit and Hecker, as with many others, and in 1873 resumed the publication of his own review without ecclesiastical consent. It had been gall and wormwood for him to submit his articles to ecclesiastical supervision, and whether this was kept up under the new régime we are not told; but the new régime was not continued long. His strength suddenly gave way, and he died in April, 1876, being then seventy-three years old. With great intellectual ability, there was some defect that prevented his being one of the factors in American life that we must seriously reckon with. Apparently there was too little character in proportion to the talent for the making of a profoundly influential man.

Mosquitoes: How they live; how they carry disease; how they are classified; how they may be destroyed. By L. O. Howard, Ph.D., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. New York: McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901. Pages 241, 50 fig.

The mosquito question in one form or

another is an old one, and those living in localities where the insects abound have in time come to consider them as among the inevitables, like death and taxes, which must be borne with such philosophy as is available. But it was not until it became quite certain that there was an intimate relation between "malaria"—that blessed refuge to which the doctors referred all puzzling symptoms—and mosquitoes, that the public became at all interested in the study of these tiny pests. Of course many did not credit the relation said to exist between the disease and the insect—indeed, it is not even yet admitted that the disease cannot be transferred in any other way; but the popular interest was at all events aroused. When it became yet further probable that that dread scourge, yellow fever, was also dependent upon a species of mosquito for its transmission, the matter became a vitally important one, concerning which all sorts of questions were asked and all sorts of misinformation were set abroad. To answer these questions, and to set out in a clear, succinct manner the relations between mosquitoes and the diseases above mentioned, is the object of Dr. Howard's excellent little book. Its appearance is timely, and no one was more competent than its author to write it.

First of all, we have a general account of mosquitoes as a whole, and of their habits and life history; from which it appears that there is yet very much to be learned concerning them. Indeed, the impression left when the book is laid down is that the subject is incomplete, and that, concerning the most common and obtrusive little insects about us, we have only a very imperfect knowledge. Dr. Howard has added much to our stock of information through his own researches, and has now collated all that was previously recorded, giving a good basis for future research. In the chapter on malaria and mosquitoes, there is a clear account of the life cycle of the protozoan parasite causing the disease, and of the part that the insect plays in its economy. It seems fairly proved that, while within the body of a malarial patient, this protozoan can multiply indefinitely if not checked by remedies, yet its sexed forms are produced only in the digestive system of the *Anopheles* mosquitoes, where they conjugate and produce bodies that work their way into the salivary glands, and are thus introduced through the beak into a new victim when the mosquito again bites. As to yellow fever, the proof is less clear, but convincing so far as it goes. There is a full account of the experiments that have been made, and one thing at least seems established—there is no danger of inoculation through contact with a diseased person or his belongings. There need be no more fumigation of clothing, of cargoes, or of mails, and no unreasonable dread of infection through individuals from a yellow-fever district. All that is necessary now is to keep the suspect in quarantine during the period of incubation; in a mosquito-free building. But is there any possible mitigation of this pest in districts where they abound? Dr. Howard says there is, and describes a number of methods by which partial or even complete relief may be obtained. Incidentally, he accuses railroads of distributing mosquitoes from the seacoast to inland points which formerly were free

from them, and in this he is no doubt correct.

The illustrations are fifty in number, and are, almost without exception, good. Those illustrating the insects and structural details are scientifically accurate, most if not all of them having been drawn under the author's own supervision by the trained artists at the United States Department of Agriculture. Some of them, indeed, were first published in Bulletin No. 25 of the Division of Entomology of that department. The book is well printed; but there are a few annoying typographical errors which should be corrected in a future edition.

The Old New York Frontier. By Francis Whiting Halsey. Scribners. 1901.

This is a history of northern and central New York during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries—of its people, its settlement, and its wars. Fragments of the story of the New York border have been recorded by Campbell and the two Stones, as well as in many local histories; the struggles of France to gain a footing on its soil have been pictured by the genius of Parkman; Cooper and Frederick have told portions of the story in the guise of fiction; but here, for the first time, is a complete and consecutive history of the lands and waters where the fate of the continent has been twice decided. Much material that is new to print, and more that until very lately has been all but inaccessible, is in this book opened to the general reader, while the author's candid and attractive style, along with the importance and interest of the subject, gives the work a value as literature as well as history.

Earlier writers have led us to think that the New York frontier faced north and extended from Oswego to Ticonderoga, but, in our author's view, it faces west, and he who would hear the story must walk with the author by Otsego Lake and those pleasant rivers, Unadilla and Susquehanna. The land of this book is the land of Wyoming and Cherry Valley, of Cooper's 'Deerslayer,' 'Pioneers,' and 'Wyandotté.' Events beyond these valleys get brief hearing, except only the great day of Oriskany, when shots were fired that were heard round the world and even at Unadilla. With this single limitation, the story of the New York border—of the Iroquois power, the French wars, the colonization, and the Revolution—is carefully and completely told with remarkably good perspective (for an observer at Unadilla). Among the subjects presented more adequately than before are Brant's conference with Herkimer in June, 1777, the value of Tryon County as the granary of the American armies, and the fact, of more than local significance, that but few of the men who held the border during the Revolution, and guarded the centre of the extended American line, were men of English blood. Palatines, Scotch-Irish, and Dutchmen fought Oriskany and defended Fort Schuyler.

As this work will become the standard for the times and places of which it treats, a few errors should be noted. There are not 30,000 Iroquois in Canada (p. 320), but only 9,879. Nor did the Iroquois in the height of their power number 25,000 (p. 16). It is probably the erroneous estimate in Morgan's 'League of the Iroquois' that has misled the author—an estimate which Dr. Morgan afterwards reduced to 17,000. There may be 17,000 or 18,000 Iroquois alive to-day.

Certainly, there are more now living than ever before. Nor is it quite accurate to say (p. 12) that this interesting people dwelt in a state of idyllic peace "overthrown by the white man when he arrived." If peace with their neighbors is meant, it did not exist; if peace among the tribes of the league, it was not overthrown. The pallid town which Champlain and the Hurons attacked in 1615 (not 1616, p. 186) did not stand on Onondaga Lake (p. 12). By a fine piece of archaeological work Gen. John S. Clark has established its location on Nichols Pond in the town of Fenner. If this demonstration needed further authority to support it, its acceptance by Parkman, Morgan, Winsor, and Beauchamp would close the discussion. Nor did Champlain land at Oswego (p. 186). He left his canoes at Salmon River, many miles to the east. Frontenac did come by way of Oswego, but in 1696, not, as the compositor alleges (p. 186), in 1792. It has hitherto been supposed that the first European to descend the Susquehanna was Champlain's interpreter, Étienne Brule, whom Champlain had sent to arouse the Conestogas against the Iroquois, and there has always been some mystery as to the origin of Brulé's name—whether it belonged to him from youth, or was bestowed in commemoration of the scorplings the Iroquois gave him; although there has never been any difference as to the spelling of it. Mr. Halsey tells us, however (p. 33), "A visit to the headwaters of the Susquehanna was made in 1616 by Stephen Bruehle, whose purpose was part of a larger purpose entertained by the Dutch at that time to secure Indian warriors to aid them in a conflict with the French, who were then pressing down from Canada." Thus the mystery deepens. Other proper names that suffer are Van Curler, who (p. 45) becomes Corlear (it is true the Mohawks called him Corlaer), Bruyas (called Bruyar p. 43), and Auriesville (Aurierville, p. 45). It is not definitely stated (p. 43) that Le Jeune and Brébeuf were ever in New York, but the uninformed reader would infer it. In 1758 a small fort called Fort Schuyler was built on the site of Utica, under agreement with the Iroquois that it should be destroyed at the close of the war with the French. This promise was kept, although the site was still known by the name. Thereafter it was no more a defence to the Mohawk Valley than is Fort Lee to the city of New York at this writing; but on page 117 the Utica Fort Schuyler is mentioned as an existing defence in the year 1779, while Fort Plain is not mentioned by either its present name or its alternative name of Fort Plank. Col. Willett was excusable in February, 1783 (p. 309), for not having heard that the treaty had been signed, since the signing did not take place (p. 339) until September 3, 1783. Of course the reference on page 309 is to the preliminaries signed January 20. Mr. Halsey believes, as we should all like to believe, that Frederick the Great sent a sword to Washington.

At the close of the book we have, by way of dessert, some interesting, not to say gossip, chapters on the early settlers and their ways. Here we learn, among other things, that the Rev. Mr. Grant of the 'Pioneers' was an actual parson all but his name, and that Monsieur Le Quoi was an actual Frenchman, name and all. Inter-

esting is the account of the sudden growth and prosperity that came to Otsego County in the great days of the Catskill turnpike, only to wither and disappear when the Erie Canal and the railroads passed it by on the other side. Otsego's population and activity, it seems, reached their highest point in 1832. The history of a country, as our author suggests in his introduction, is in a great measure a history of its highways. Otsego is here presented as a peaceful rural hostelry, roused to stir and bustle by the arrival of the stage-coach, and resuming its placid contentment when the uproar has ceased and the wheels have disappeared down the road.

In an appendix is a valuable list of books consulted, which furnishes a fairly complete bibliography of the subject.

The Reformation. By Williston Walker. (Ten Epochs of Church History.) Charles Scribner's Sons.

The measurement of books by the space they occupy may seem to some a base and mechanical way of approaching them, but there are several classes of literature, including manuals and general surveys, which must always be considered with reference to their bulk. According to our arithmetic, Mr. Walker's book on the Reformation contains 120,000 words—a very moderate length, in view of the author's elastic definition of his period. He anticipates the Lutheran movement by giving an account of mediæval sects and of the European situation at the end of the Middle Ages. He does not stop at the Council of Trent, but extends his limits to the end of the Thirty Years' War. Within such a field the opportunities for writing a diffuse essay or sketch are boundless. Mr. Walker is fortunately able to keep his narrative compact without making it bald.

A somewhat closer analysis shows that while the chronological extremes are wide apart, the scale of treatment is by no means uniform throughout. What comes before the appearance of Luther is an introduction, and what follows the death of Calvin is an epilogue. The main action falls within the years 1517-1564, a period marked by the rise of several great theological systems and meriting the relative prominence which Mr. Walker gives it. Even within such restrictions, one observes the tendency to dismiss lightly several matters of extreme importance. Thus, if we may select an isolated but typical incident, the Regensburg Conference of 1541 (the most serious attempt at reconciliation with Rome) receives only a few lines. Similarly, the Council of Trent is dismissed with a conspicuously limited notice. Mr. Walker prefers to look at the events of the sixteenth century from the Protestant standpoint, not because he is a champion, but because he would keep in the foreground the new and positive ideas which Luther, Zwingli, Calvin, and the Radicals introduced. We see in this conception a valid reason for keeping the Catholic revival in the background. There is a chapter on the "Counter Reformation"—a term unpopular with Romanists—but, apart from its account of the Jesuits, it seems a little exiguous.

Mr. Walker presents a large amount of information, and enters at times into circumstantial detail. Yet he is fond of theorizing and of illuminating his pages by

well-considered general statements. We have said that he tends to magnify the constructive rather than the resisting forces of the Reformation age. On the other hand, an example of his fairness towards the Romanists and their use of coercive measures may be taken from his chapter on the "Spanish Awakening." While less enthusiastic about this episode than Hefele is in his life of Ximenes, he gives it much more credit than it usually gets at the hands of Protestant historians. Even when we come to the test case of the Holy Office, Mr. Walker makes the most generous concessions: "There is some reason to believe that the methods of the Inquisition, cruel as they seem from a modern standpoint, were milder than those of contemporary civil law." Without implying, then, that the book is controversial, we would point out that its tone is extremely candid when a controversial point is touched. However, if we may judge from the views of Mr. W. S. Lilly, a good many Romanists would take exception to the following well-meant sentence: "The true Catholic, while denying the worth of much that the Protestant calls good and deploring the loss to Roman obedience of a large portion of Christendom, can, nevertheless, rejoice in the moral and spiritual regeneration which the Reformation wrought in the Roman communion."

With regard to the central portion of the work, in which Mr. Walker examines the development and spread of doctrinal systems, the reader need not look for many new facts or strange opinions about the German, Swiss, and French reformers. The round has been so repeatedly gone over, and the issues so exhaustively debated, that fresh views could not fitly be advanced in a short treatise. The chief theologies—Luther's, Zwingli's, and Calvin's—are neatly defined, without a trace of party spirit, and discussed with great intelligence. Mr. Walker, like several recent writers, shows a considerable interest in the Anabaptists and other Radicals, to whose opinions he pays the tribute of a just and temperate examination. One topic which is often neglected in short histories of the Reformation, finds its proper place here. We refer to the effect which Melancthon's action at the time of the Leipzig interim had upon the subsequent development of Lutheranism. The battle of Johann Agricola, Conrad Cordatus, and Amsdorf against Philip and the Philippists is outlined with a clear sense of the vital issue. Like Charles Beard, Mr. Walker has been impressed by those sad words of the mild but forspent reformer: "No wonder that, as the much harassed Melancthon neared his end, he gave as one reason why he wished to lay down an earthly career that had been so full of conflict and criticism, that he might escape the rage of the theologians."

Mr. Walker's scholarship is exact and varied. Despite the large number of minute facts which he gives, we have seen little to cavil at. A statement is made (pp. 230-231) that when Farel settled at Aigle in 1526, "French-speaking Vaud" was part of the territories of Berne. He indeed went to Aigle at the instance of Berne, but the northeast shore of Lake Leman, with the lower Rhone valley, was not seized by Berne till 1536. Again (p. 268), Mr. Walker says of Calvin: "He believed Servetus a most dangerous heretic, the representative of that Italian anti-Trinitarianism which he regard-

ed as one of the great perils of the Reformation." Fausto Sozzini was then a boy of fourteen, and any anti-Trinitarian beliefs his uncle may have held were unknown to Calvin. As for Blandrata, Gentile, and Grimaldi, they became conspicuous for their denial of the Trinity only in the course of the next five years or so. It seems impossible that Calvin could have reached a fixed conviction of the danger which the Reformation ran before the execution of Servetus. But Mr. Walker has a sound grasp of the subject, and hardly ever exposes himself to a charge of inaccuracy. His style is clear, though tending at times to an excess of ponderous words.

As a sketch of the aggressive forces which were at work in the Western Church during the early age of the Reformation, Mr. Walker's book is both thorough and able.

Nursing Ethics. By Isabel Hampton Robb. Cleveland: J. B. Savage.

To develop a raw country girl or a young woman of refinement into a competent caretaker for the sick-room is a real transformation, and the one thus taught who compares her condition as a wage-earner with her previous value as a producer, is apt to look upon herself as a superior being. She is. But she is not a pure delight to those who have her to deal with, nor is the class of trained nurses an undiluted joy to the world. When mechanical dexterity is acquired, the judgment cultivated sufficiently to avoid interference, and discipline preserved, a modern hospital owes much of its efficiency to these women. In fact, some hospitals could not be maintained without them. But the number of practices which Mrs. Robb properly condemns as not convenient to be indulged in—ranging as they do from gossip and untidiness to the drug habit and insubordination—opens a vista of possibilities, and clearly shows that even constant work under a common head leaves loopholes for mischief-making. As freer and more independent agents in private homes nurses often are welcomed, sometimes dreaded. They themselves cannot know the distressing debate—where anxiety for the ill maintains the affirmative and the whole interior economy of a not wealthy household supports the negative—over the question, Shall we employ a trained nurse? But some must be ingenuous and wholly self-effacing, else why should so many acquire husbands among doctors and patients? From time immemorial, old men have married to secure a nurse; it surely cannot be that modern nurses have developed a complementary deficiency.

There runs through this volume of fundamental manners a double strain of stimulus and of repression. The incidentals of hair and teeth and perspiration, of nails and perfumes, of baths and foot-gear, receive an attention that is eminently proper and excellently expressed. The recruits for whom this elementary instruction is supposed to be necessary are adult women whose personal habits represent those of their breeding. But besides this incitement to a higher and gentler physical plane, we find these cautions: "The question whether she agrees perfectly with [the physician's] recommendations, or believes that her own methods are better, has no bearing upon the case," and "Nurses have been known to expostulate with the physician and to suggest that the

treatment ordered was not best for the patient" (pp. 250-1). It may be hoped that neophytes and graduates alike will profit by the reprobation expressed with such charming innocency. There is a most naïve injunction for two nurses with a private case that "nothing in the way of bad feeling, resentment, or heated discussion should ever be dreamed of" (p. 261).

At p. 262, the advantage of legislation for the sisterhood is touched on, though with wise warning that it could not be "a panacea for the present unsatisfactory condition of affairs." Associated women do not require urging to invoke the law, rather than to persuade and argue, in favor of transformations which may or may not be improvements. Competent judges pronounce against their latest achievements, viz., the abolition of the canteen, and the introduction of female nurses into the permanent military economy. The first was due to the zeal of a certain Union and the moral overawing of Congress. The second was an adroit seizure of popular military enthusiasm as an opportunity to give an official status to nurses as representatives, and depended for its success upon the pressure of various Daughters, the coöperation of influential nurses individually or through their alumni organizations, and a weak acquiescence at the War Department. In both cases ignorance of the real conditions on the part of the aggressors effected a junction with the inefficiency of the defenders, and carried the day.

As Miss Hampton, this author prepared from the fullness of personal knowledge an excellent work for students of the art on 'Nursing,' but in the present the seamy side of the finished product shows too many irregularities to be picturesque or altogether attractive. We should rather entitle the book 'What Nurses Ought and Ought Not to Do.'

The Mediterranean Race: A Study in the Origin of European Peoples. By G. Sergi, Professor of Anthropology in the University of Rome. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. 8vo, pp. 320; 93 illustrations.

The term Mediterranean is here made to stand for a most ancient stock, composed of many consanguineous peoples, that lived all about this inland sea, proceeding from a common centre of dispersion. The Mediterranean family of races includes Iberians, Ligurians, Pelasgians, Khatti (Hethi, Chittim, or Hittite), and Libyans. It is to be understood that, probably in Quaternary times, the ancestors of all these peoples came from northern Africa, as our own Brinton and Keane of England contended.

In 1893 Sergi published 'Le Varietà Umane: Principe e Metodo di Classificazione.' A translation forms Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections, No. 969, and a new Italian edition appeared in 1900. During the last twenty years this indefatigable investigator, regarding all classifications of mankind based on cranial indexes as absurd, has devoted himself to the development of a new binomial scheme of cranial nomenclature. It can be only mentioned here. There are sixteen varietal names of crania, as follows: (1) Ellipsoides; (2) Pentagonoides; (3) Rhomboides; (4) Ovoides; (5) Beloides; (6) Spheroides; (7) Birsoides; (8) Parallelepipedoides; (9) Cylindroides; (10) Cuboides;

(11) Trapezoides; (12) Acmonoides; (13) Lophocephalus; (14) Chomatocephalus; (15) Platycephalus; (16) Skopeloides. You may join to these *summa genera* other modifying terms, either for prefixes, as *dolichellipsoides* or *brachyellipsoides*; or subvarietal designations may be added, giving any number of binomials, such as *Trapezoides sardinensis*, *Cuboides parvus*, and so on. If it be objected that these designations are long and cumbersome, it is very easy for Dr. Sergi to say that no insuperable obstacle is found in *Pithecanthropus erectus*; and, indeed, there are some of God's creatures so much smaller than their Græco-Roman titles that a million of them could dance thereon.

This Eurafic species, or Mediterranean family of races, left a profound impression upon history. The Egyptians were a detached branch of the primitive Libyans. The Pelasgians were a great division of an immense family spread from Italy to Asia Minor—the Etruscans are western Pelasgians. The oldest Italian stock, the Ligurian, had a community of origin with those of other Mediterranean regions. The early peoples of the Iberian peninsula show a Pelasgic form of skull belonging to the east and north of Africa, from Somaliland and Egypt to the Canaries. The Eurafic species, extending beyond the Pyrenees, invaded France and then Britain, constructing tumuli for the dead wherever it took possession. Pentagonoids, Egyptian rhomboids, ellipsoids, and ovoids, all common in the Mediterranean population, are found among the ancient crania of Switzerland. The so-called Reihengräber types are not Germanic Aryans, but belong to the same pre-Aryan population, and the primitive Neolithic population of Bohemia is the same. Not only early but also the present Scandinavians show relationship with the African stock. The first colonists of southern Russia came from the Mediterranean along the Propontis, the Black Sea, and by the Chersonese. The truly brachycephalic types of Italy, Spain, and France are of Asiatic origin. The anthropological unity of Europe existing from late Quaternary was broken by these eastern immigrants, called by Sergi the Eurasiatic species, which includes Kelts, Germans, and Slavs. "These invaders were savages, inferior to the Neolithic Europeans, whose civilization they in large part destroyed, replunging Europe into barbarism, also introducing the new mortuary custom of cremation, . . . and transforming the existing languages into their own."

In reading Sergi's book one is conscious always of a sense of doubt as to the foundations of ethnology. A hundred or more eminent scholars are quoted, and nearly in every case to disagree with them. Most of them are now living, and doubtless will be heard from in self-defence. Now, this would be well enough in a journal of ethnology, but the "Contemporary Science Series," designed to put intelligent readers in touch with the latest and best results, is not an arena. Sergi ought to have told us more about his own processes and conclusions. Again, there is an aggravating intrusion of *I* and *we*. The author does not know how to conceal himself. With all these defects of style, the book is the work of one of the most industrious, original, and fearless of European ethnologists.

Phonétique et Étude des Formes Grecques et Latines. Par Othon Riemann et Henri Goelzer. Pp. 540. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

Under the general title of "Grammaire Comparée du Grec et du Latin" this work forms a companion volume to the previously published "Syntaxe," by the same authors. Like the latter, it is based upon the manuscript notes left by the late M. Riemann, revised and augmented by M. Goelzer. Neither author has been a productive scholar along the lines of phonology or morphology, and in the present volume specialists will find no notable contribution to the solution of outstanding problems. The work is a compilation—but a good one, showing a reasonably thorough acquaintance with the literature of the subject, discrimination in the choice between conflicting opinions, and clearness of presentation. It ought to serve well its purpose of acquainting French classical students with the results of the comparative study of Greek and Latin. Its greater fullness of references to current literature gives it a certain advantage over the well-known "Précis" of Victor Henry, which has met with such deserved success. A serious fault, inexcusable in a linguistic treatise, is the inconsistent practice in the marking of vowel-quantities both in Latin words and in words quoted from Sanskrit and other languages.

In discussing the different names given to our family of languages, the authors are guilty of a curious error in attributing the varying usage, as between the terms Indo-European and Indo-Germanic, to a difference of opinion as to the interrelations of the members of the family. "The partisans of the term Indo-European languages," they say, "divide these languages into two groups, the Oriental languages and the European languages. Those who prefer the term Indo-Germanic languages adopt the division into languages of the North and languages of the South." Reference is made here to the two most widely current of the many *Stammbaum* schemes once in vogue, but preference for one or the other of these schemes never had any influence on the choice of a name for the whole linguistic family. Both terms, Indo-European and Indo-Germanic, as well as others, came into use in the early part of the nineteenth century (Indo-Germanic has been traced back to 1823). Bopp used Indo-European, but later German scholars

preferred Indo-Germanic, until this has become the established usage in German. French scholars have always used Indo-European, likewise American scholars, without exception, from Whitney to the present time. In England, since the passing of "Aryan," which, however, is still widely used in anthropological works and in popular essays the world over, both Indo-European and Indo-Germanic are used. The latter became familiar in English through its use, under the specific instructions of the author, in the translation of Brugmann's "Grundriss," and this perhaps accounts for its adoption in such works as Giles's "Manual of Comparative Philology" and Lindsay's "Latin Language." But no one doubts that Indo-European is at least as good a name as Indo-Germanic, and there is no sufficient reason for abandoning it after it has been established in English usage.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Arnold, Emma J. *Stories of Ancient Peoples.* American Book Company. 50 cents.
 Arnold, J. A. *Guide for Business Corporations in the State of New York.* Baker, Voorhis & Co. \$1.50.
 Barnes, James. *The Great War Trek.* D. Appleton & Co.
 Bell, Lillian. *Sir John and the American Girl.* Harpers. \$1.15.
 Borders, J. H. *The Queen of Appalachia.* Abbey Press. \$1.
 Bouchier, John. *Lord Berners: The Chronicle of Geoffrey.* Vol. II. London: David Nutt.
 Brandes, George. *Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature.* Macmillan.
 Brinton, D. G. *Races and Peoples.* Philadelphia: David McKay.
 Brisson, Adolphe. *Portraits Intimes.* Cinquième série. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
 Chamisso, Adelbert. *Peter Schlemihl.* Cassell & Co. 10 cents.
 Chefs d'œuvres of the Exposition Universelle. Parts 12 and 13. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son. \$1 each.
 Cicero, M. T. *Old Age and Friendship.* Cassell & Co. 10 cents.
 Clarke, Hugh A. *Highways and Byways of Music.* Silver, Burdett & Co. 75 cents.
 Cone, Orello. *The Epistles to the Hebrews, Colossians, Ephesians, and Philemon, the Pastoral Epistles, the Epistles of James, Peter, and Jude.* G. P. Putnam's Sons.
 Courtoise, W. J. *Life in Poetry: Law in Taste.* Macmillan.
 Crockett, S. R. *The Play Actress, and Crawford, F. M. The Upper Berth.* G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
 De Forest, J. W. *The Downing Legends.* New Haven: The Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Co.
 Dexter, Almon. *And the Wilderness Blossomed.* Philadelphia: H. W. Fisher & Co. \$2.
 Duval, Delphine, and Williams, H. Isabelle. *Le Dix-septième Siècle.* Henry Holt & Co.
 Elliot, George. *Adam Bede.* Vols. I. and II. London: J. M. Dent & Co.
 Emerson, R. W. *Representative Men.* London: J. M. Dent & Co.
 Esmond, H. V. *When We Were Twenty-One.* J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. 25 cents.
 Fielding, Anna. *Did She Fail?* Abbey Press. 50 cents.
 Fuller, Anna. *Katherine Day.* G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
 Garner, J. W. *Reconstruction in Mississippi.* Macmillan.
 Gautier, Théophile. *Works.* Vols. VII.: *Travels in Italy;* and VIII.: *Fortunio.* George D. Sproul.
 Hart, Beatrice. *Seven Great American Poets.* Silver, Burdett & Co. 80 cents.
 Hasluck, P. N. *Taxidermy.* Cassell & Co. 40 cents.
 Henderson, John B., Jr. *American Diplomatic Questions.* Macmillan. \$5.50.
 Hoddert, Alfred. *The Adversaries of the Sceptic.* London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. \$1.50.
 Holgate, T. F. *Elementary Geometry, Plane and Solid.* Macmillan. \$1.10.
 Hopkins, E. W. *The Great Epic of India.* (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) Scribners. \$4.
 Johnson, Samuel. *Lives of the English Poets.* Cassell & Co. 10 cents.
 Kayne, Sargent. *Anting-Anting Stories.* Small, Maynard & Co. \$1.25.
 Knight, E. F. *Small-Boat Sailing.* London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50.
 Lee, J. F. *Octavia, the Octoroon.* The Abbey Press. 50 cents.
 Logie, A. E., and Necke, C. H. *The Story Reader.* American Book Co. 30 cents.
 Longman's Pictorial Geographical Readers. Book I. Longmans, Green & Co. 36 cents.
 Love, Margaret B. *Tom Huston's Transformation.* Abbey Press. 60 cents.
 Macaulay, G. O. *The Complete Works of John Gower.* Vols. II. and III. Henry Frowde. \$8.
 Macleod, W. M. *An Odd Jewel.* Abbey Press. 50 cents.
 Macmechan, Archibald. *The Porter of Bagdad, and Other Fantasies.* Toronto: G. N. Morang & Co. \$1.
 Marche, H. L. de la. *Souvenirs de la Guerre du Transvaal.* Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
 Martin, Amarala. *A Feather's Weight.* Abbey Press. 50 cents.
 McGaffey, Ernest. *Sonnets to a Wife.* St. Louis: William M. Reedy.
 Melchior, L. *Dans le Monde des Réprouvés.* Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie. 3 fr. 50.
 Menpes, Mortimer, and Dorothy. *War Impressions: Being a Record in Colour.* London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. \$6.
 Methuen, A. M. S. *Peace or War in South Africa.* London: Methuen & Co.
 Miller, Olive Thorne. *The Second Book of Birds: Bird Families.* Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
 Moore, J. T. *A Summer Hymnal.* H. T. Coates & Co.
 Morris, Mrs. J. E. *A Pacific Coast Vacation.* Abbey Press. \$1.50.
 Morris, Mrs. J. E. *The Travels of a Water Drop.* Abbey Press. 50 cents.
 Morgan, Mary de. *The Windfaires, and Other Tales.* E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50.
 Mowry, W. A. *Marcus Whitman and the Early Days of Oregon.* Silver, Burdett & Co. \$1.50.
 Muir, Law. *A Woman's Revenge.* Abbey Press. 50 cents.
 Page, Lorena M. *Legendary Lore of Mackinac.* Cleveland: L. M. Page. \$1.
 Payne, Mary E. *Viola Livingstone.* Abbey Press. 50 cents.
 Pritchard, Agnes C. *Conchita's Angels.* Abbey Press. \$1.
 Proceedings of the Tenth National Convention of the Socialist Labor Party Held in New York City, 1900. New York Labor News Co.
 Pryce, Gwendolen. *John Jones, Curate.* London: T. Fisher Unwin.
 Rich, A. B. *Our Near Neighbor, the Mosquito.* Abbey Press. 50 cents.
 Rodkinson, M. L. *The Babylonian Talmud, Vol. I.* New Talmud Pub. Co.
 Salvatorina. *The Wisdom of Passion.* Boston: Mystic River Book Co.
 Sanborn, Frank B. *Ralph Waldo Emerson.* Small, Maynard & Co. 75 cents.
 Shakespeare, W. *Love's Labour's Lost.* Cassell & Co. 10 cents.
 Singer, Isidore. *The Jewish Encyclopedia, Vol. I.* Funk & Wagnalls Co. \$7.
 Snodrow, Louis. *A Candle-Light, and Other Poems.* Abbey Press. \$1.
 Southworth, G. A. *New Lessons in Language.* Thos. R. Shewell & Co.
 Stockwell, C. T. *New Modes of Thought.* James H. West Co. \$1.
 The Rubaiyat of Mirza-Mem'n. Chicago: H. O. Shepard.
 Van Dyke, Curtis. *A Daughter of the Prophets.* Abbey Press. \$1.
 Winbiger, C. F. *Christian Science and Kindred Superstitions.* Abbey Press. \$1.
 Wright, Marie R. *The New Brazil: Its Resources and Attractions.* Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son.
 Wright, W. H. *The Great Bread Trust.* Abbey Press.

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